NEW

GEORGIANS

The remarkable dynasty that oversaw the Industrial Revolution and a changing Britain

THE FATE OF EMPIRES

Discover an epic story of two warriors and their personal battle at Waterloo

Digital Edition

FUTURE

THIRD EDITION

From the makers of ALL ABOUT HISTORY

GEORGIAN QUEENS • NAPOLEONIC WARS • ART & ARCHITECTURE • EMPIRE & REVOLUTION

WELCOME

With William III and Queen Anne leaving no heirs, and with more than 50 Catholics out of the picture due to the 1701 Act of Settlement, the next in line to the throne was Sophia, Dowager Electress of Hanover. Right behind her was her son, George. Sophia and Anne died within mere weeks of one another in 1714. George I ascended the throne and in Britain, the Georgian era dawned.

In the Book of the Georgians, you'll discover how the dynasty cemented its place in history, from the battlefields on the European continent, the naval encounters at sea and the string of Hanoverian monarchs, to what everyday life was like for the common people of the growing cities and the well-off nobility. Meet the kings and queens who left their mark on the nation, from George III's descent into madness to the extravagance of the Prince Regent. Explore a nation in the throes of the Industrial Revolution and the people pushing the boundaries of creativity in art, literature and architecture, such as writers Mary Shelley and Jane Austen, and architects Lancelot 'Capability' Brown and the Adam Brothers. Packed with beautiful illustrations and insights into the era, this is the perfect guide for anyone who wants to learn more about this legendary period of British history.

FUTURE

GEORGIANS

Future PLC Quay House, The Ambury, Bath, BA1 1UA

Bookazine Editorial
Editor **Hannah Westlake**
Designer **Briony Duguid**
Compiled by **April Madden & Steve Dacombe**
Editorial Director **Jon White**
Senior Art Editor **Andy Downes**

Magazine Editorial
Editor **Jonathan Gordon**
Designer **Kym Winters**
Editorial Director **Tim Williamson**
Senior Art Editor **Greg Whitaker**

Cover images
Getty images

Photography
All copyrights and trademarks are recognised and respected

Advertising
Media packs are available on request
Commercial Director **Clare Dove**
clare.dove@futurenet.com

International
Head of Print Licensing **Rachel Shaw**
licensing@futurenet.com

Circulation
Head of Newstrade **Tim Mathers**

Production
Head of Production **Mark Constance**
Production Project Manager **Clare Scott**
Advertising Production Manager **Joanne Crosby**
Digital Editions Controller **Jason Hudson**
Production Managers **Keely Miller, Nola Cokely,**
Vivienne Calvert, Fran Twentyman

Management
Chief Content Officer **Aaron Asadi**
Commercial Finance Director **Dan Jotcham**
Head of Art & Design **Greg Whitaker**

Printed by William Gibbons, 26 Planetary Road,
Willenhall, West Midlands, WV13 3XT

Distributed by Marketforce, 5 Churchill Place, Canary Wharf, London, E14 5HU
www.marketforce.co.uk Tel: 0203 787 9001

All About History Book of the Georgians Third Edition (AHB3410)
© 2020 Future Publishing Limited

We are committed to only using magazine paper which is derived from responsibly managed, certified forestry and chlorine-free manufacture. The paper in this magazine was sourced and produced from sustainable managed forests, conforming to strict environmental and socioeconomic standards. The manufacturing paper mill and printer hold full FSC and PEFC certification and accreditation.

All contents © 2020 Future Publishing Limited or published under licence. All rights reserved. No part of this magazine may be used, stored, transmitted or reproduced in any way without the prior written permission of the publisher. Future Publishing Limited (company number 2008885) is registered in England and Wales. Registered office: Quay House, The Ambury, Bath BA1 1UA. All information contained in this publication is for information only and is, as far as we are aware, correct at the time of going to press. Future cannot accept any responsibility for errors or inaccuracies in such information. You are advised to contact manufacturers and retailers directly with regard to the price of products/services referred to in this publication. Apps and websites mentioned in this publication are not under our control. We are not responsible for their contents or any other changes or updates to them. This magazine is fully independent and not affiliated in any way with the companies mentioned herein.
FUTURE

Connectors.
Creators.
Experience
Makers.

Future plc is a public company quoted on the London Stock Exchange (symbol: FUTR)
www.futureplc.com

Chief executive **Zillah Byng-Thorne**
Non-executive chairman **Richard Huntingford**
Chief financial officer **Rachel Addison**
Tel +44 (0)1225 442 244

Part of the
ALL ABOUT HISTORY
bookazine series

This bookazine is printed on recycled paper

Widely Recycled

ipso. For press freedom with responsibility

CONTENTS

GEORGIAN ROYALTY

10 The House of Hanover
The Hanoverians were not the most popular choice for a monarchy

14 Georgian kings
Meet the kings who defined the Georgian Era

20 Georgian queens
The Georgian queens were intelligent, curious and fascinating figures

SOCIETY & CULTURE

30 Progress and change
The key events of the Georgian Era

36 The Industrial Revolution
A new technological age dawned with the Industrial Revolution

40 Robert Walpole, Prime Minister
Walpole is considered to be the nation's first prime minister

44 Class and entertainment
Georgian Britain was a world of contrasts, especially between classes

50 The Gin Craze
How a wave of drunkenness swept over London

52 No holds barred
The truth behind Britain's underground fight club

58 Building the Georgian Era
Discover a golden age of architecture

64 Royal scandal at Kew Gardens
The history of Kew Gardens is entwined with Britain's monarchs

74 Jane Austen
Uncover the life and work of this iconic author

78 The year without summer
A monster is born when four exiles begin telling spooky stories

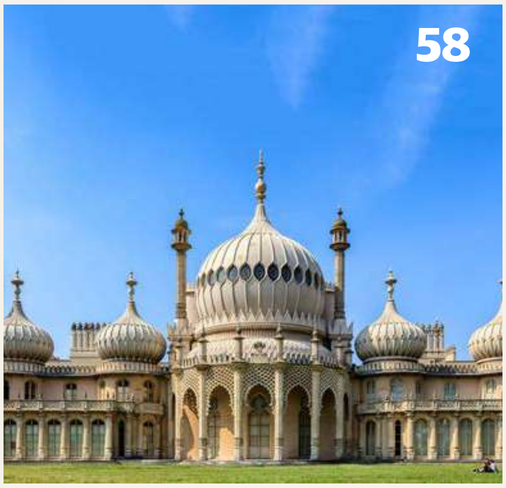
82 Heroes of literature
The library legends who endure to this day

86 10 artists that shaped the Georgian Era
How Britain became a hub of creativity

90 The march of knowledge
Knowledge and technology moved at a relentless pace

92 The war on slavery
How freedom was finally won

94 Australia's first penal colony
How backbreaking labour forged the modern-day land down under



WAR & CONFLICT

102 Conflicts of the Georgian Era
Britain was at war for more than 120 years

108 Scotland's last rebels
How the Jacobite forces prepared themselves for one final showdown

118 Losing the Thirteen Colonies
How a revolt over tea and taxes ignited a world-changing revolution

126 Nelson & the Battle of Trafalgar
The Battle of Trafalgar was the last hope against a French invasion

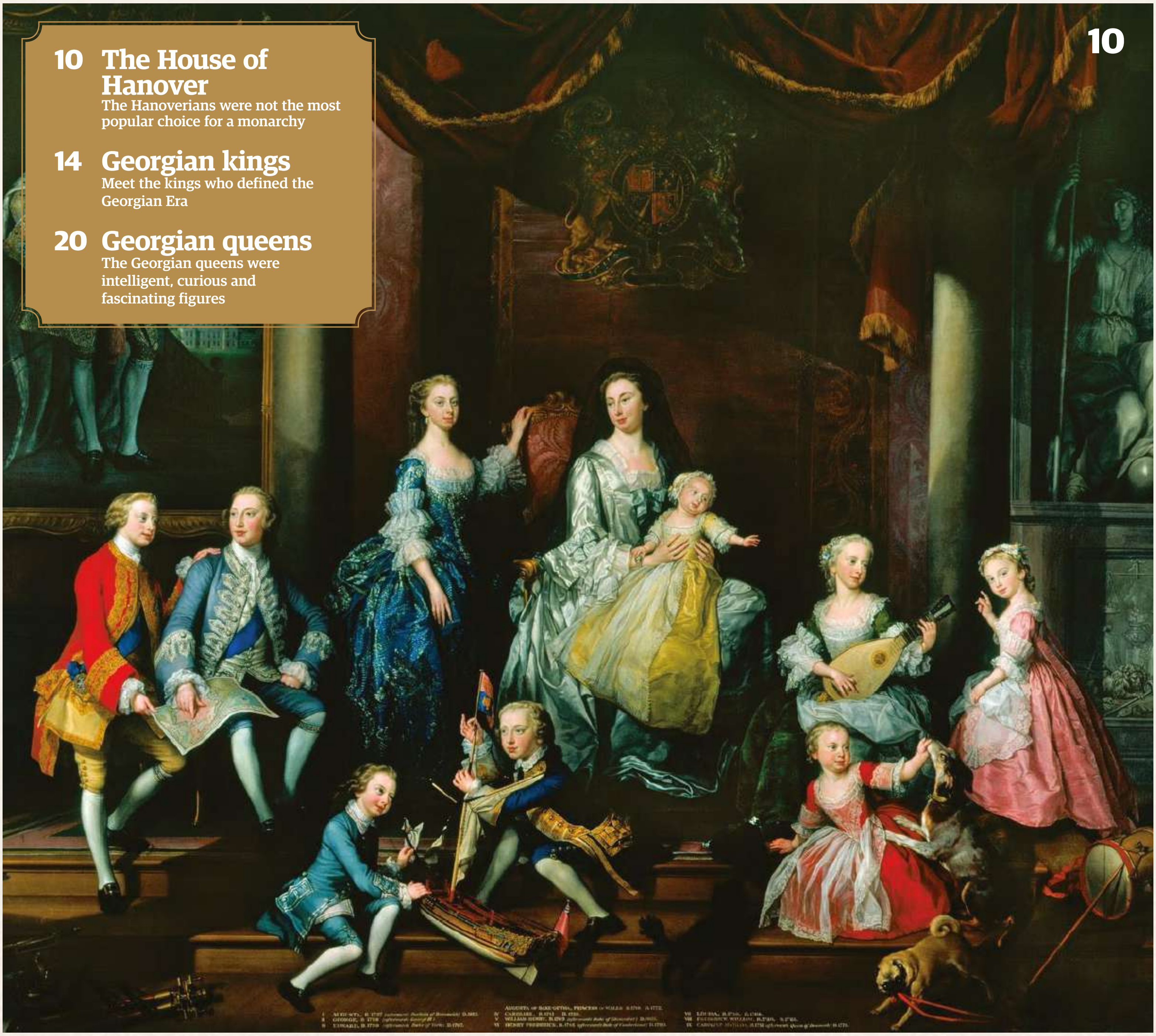
136 Napoleon vs Wellington
The epic story of the battle that would decide the fate of empires

GEORGIAN ROYALTY

10 **The House of Hanover**
The Hanoverians were not the most popular choice for a monarchy

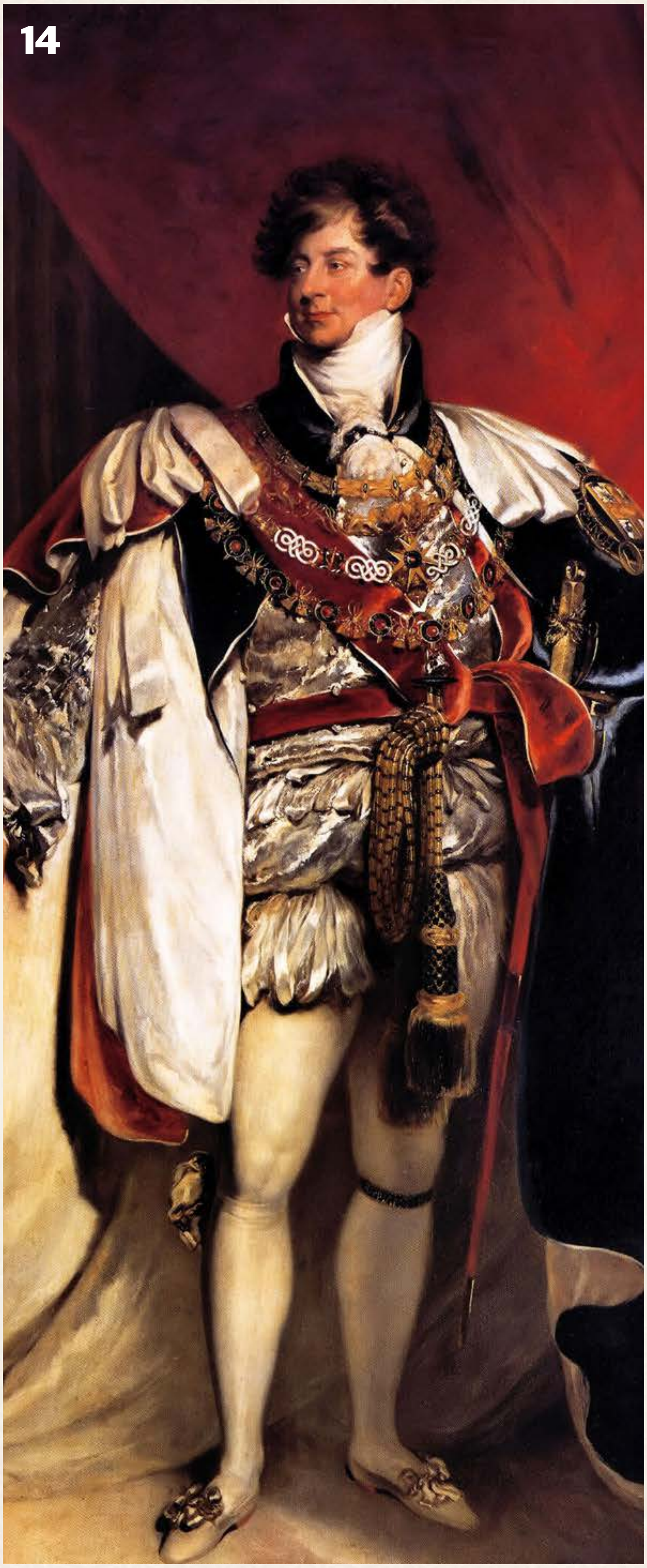
14 **Georgian kings**
Meet the kings who defined the Georgian Era

20 **Georgian queens**
The Georgian queens were intelligent, curious and fascinating figures

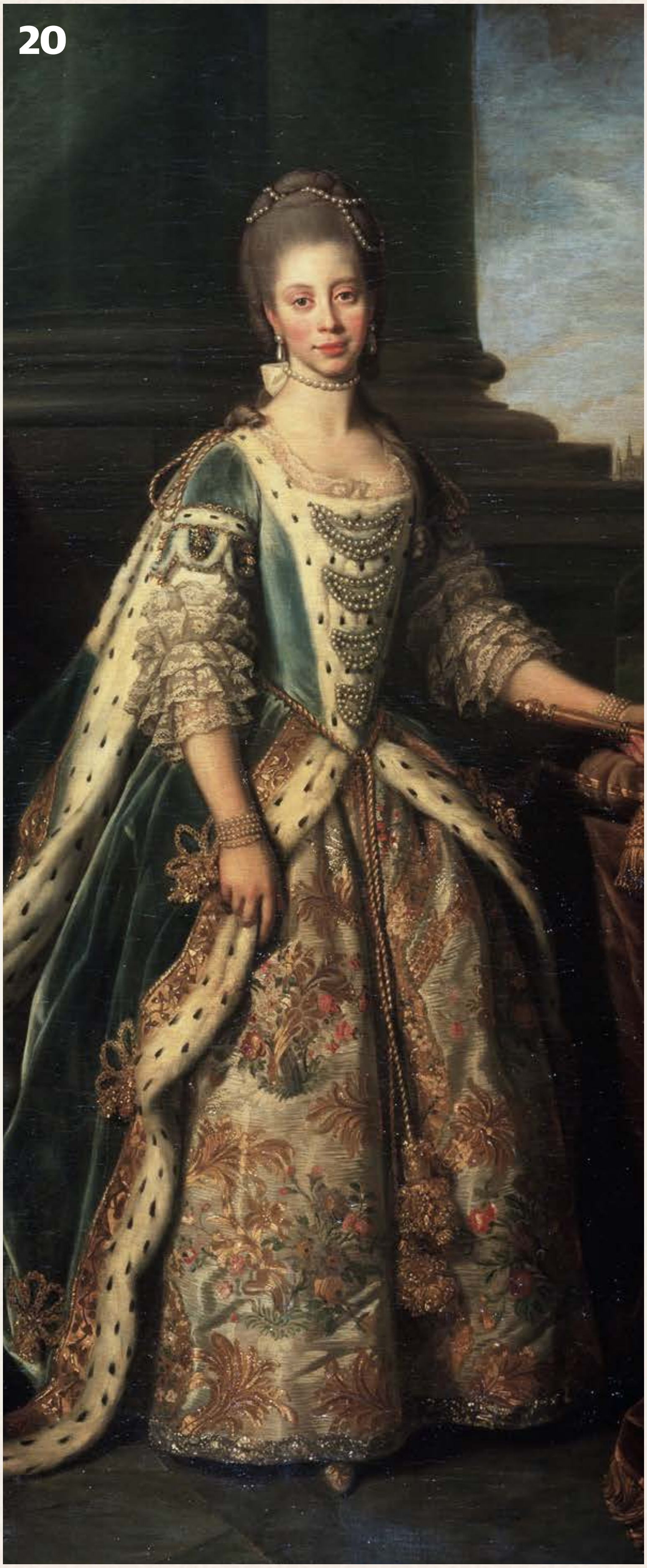


10

14



20

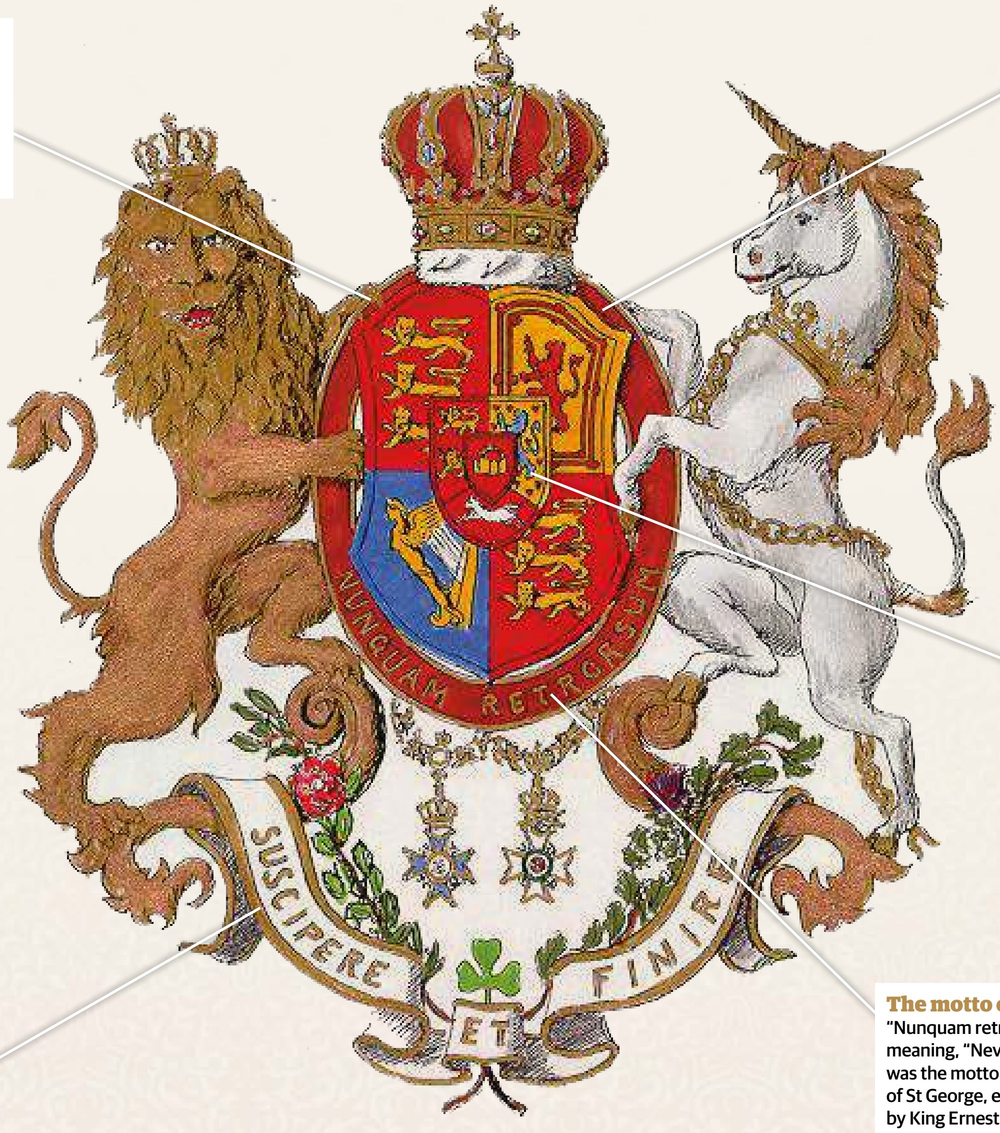


THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

1714-1901

Hailing from Germany and not necessarily the popular choice for a monarchy, the House of Hanover loved nothing more than a good family fight

Written by Catherine Curzon



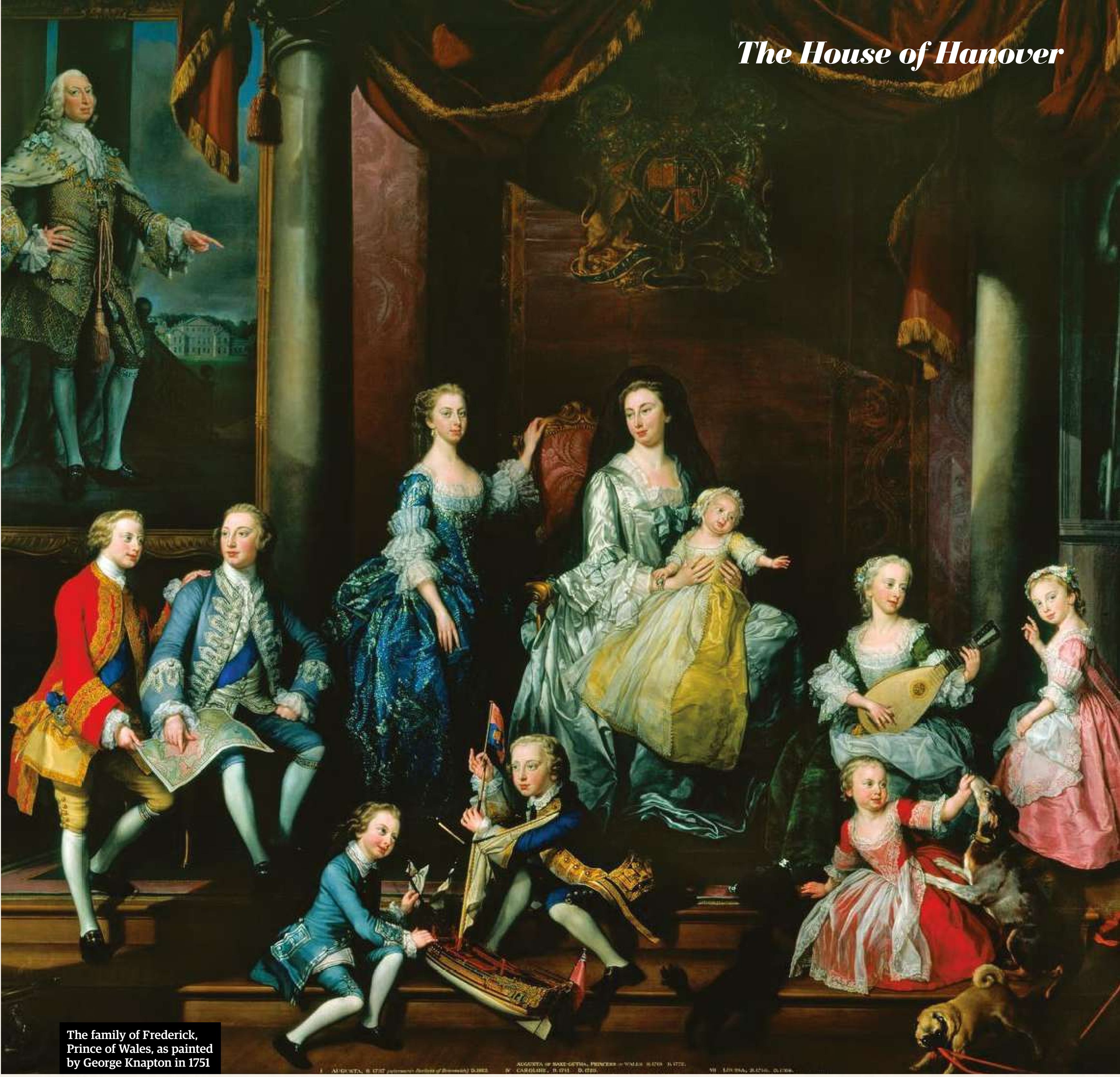
The British coat of arms
When the personal union with Great Britain ended, the royal House of Hanover continued to use the British coat of arms to signify its role at the centre of the British monarchy.

The escutcheon
Hanover's European territories are represented here, with the two lions passant guardant of Brunswick, the lion rampant of Luneberg and the white horse of Hanover.

The inescutcheon
The crown of Charlemagne is at the heart of the coat of arms. Charlemagne was the Arch-Treasurer of the Holy Roman Empire, of which Hanover had been an electorate since the 17th century.

The motto
The House of Hanover took as its motto "Suscipere et Finire", meaning "Support and Finish" – a clear reference to its alliances with other nations.

The motto of St George
"Nunquam retrorsum", meaning, "Never backward", was the motto of the Order of St George, established by King Ernest Augustus of Hanover in 1839.



The family of Frederick, Prince of Wales, as painted by George Knapton in 1751

The history of the House of Hanover begins far away in Germany, where four brothers shared the realms of the House of Brunswick-Lüneburg. By far the most ambitious of those brothers was Ernest Augustus. He alone fathered a brace of heirs to the family realms and introduced a change in succession that meant in the future, all that had once been shared would be inherited by one heir. That heir was his eldest son, better known to history as King George I.

It was thanks to the machinations of the ambitious Ernest Augustus that Hanover was elevated from a common old duchy to the heights of an electorate of the Holy Roman Empire. After years of conflict and diplomacy, Leopold, the Holy Roman Emperor, approached Ernest Augustus, then Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, and asked if he would throw his military might behind the empire's forces on the battlefields of the Nine Years' War. Ernest Augustus said yes, on condition that Hanover be made an electorate of that powerful empire. With no other choice, Leopold agreed. Hanover would never look back.

George would never look back either. His mother, Sophia, was the daughter of Elizabeth Stuart and granddaughter of James VI. She was also, crucially, a Protestant. When the 1701 Act of Settlement was passed it barred any Roman Catholic heir from sitting on the English throne. The current king, William III, and the heir presumptive, Queen Anne, had no heirs and with more than 50 Catholics out of the picture, that meant the second in line to the throne was Sophia, Dowager Electress of Hanover. Right behind her was her son, George.

Sophia and Anne died within mere weeks of one another in 1714. George I ascended the throne and in Britain, the Georgian era dawned.

The Pedigree

Uncover the scandalous lineage of the House of Hanover

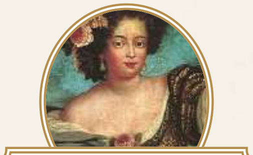
Order of succession

Marriage

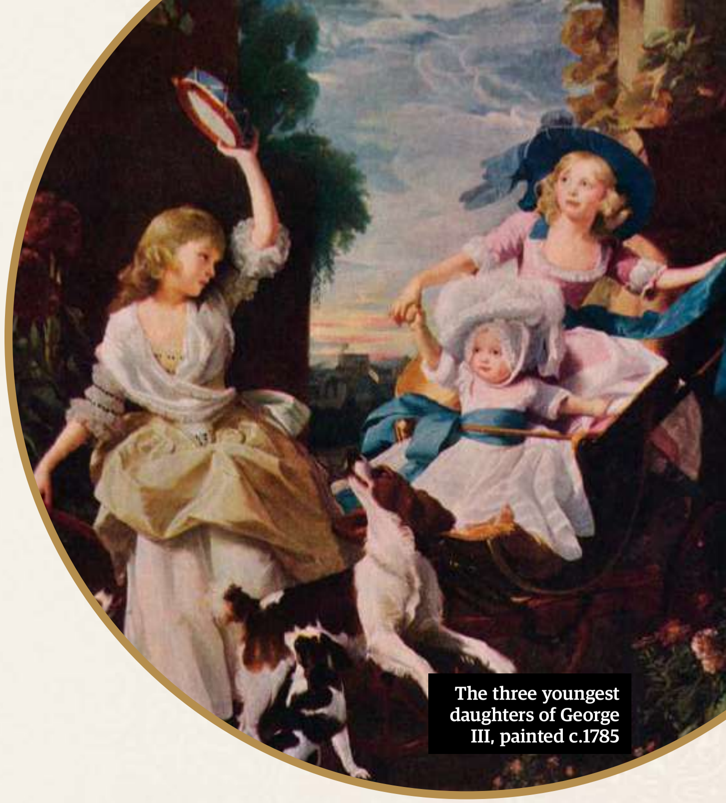
FAMILY DISPUTES

William IV resolved to live long enough for Princess Victoria to turn 18, so her mother couldn't become regent after he died.

1
1714-1727
George I
b.1660-d.1727

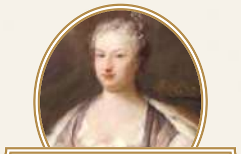


Sophia Dorothea of Celle
b.1666-d.1726



The three youngest daughters of George III, painted c.1785

2
1727-1760
George II
b.1683-d.1760



Caroline of Ansbach
b.1683-d.1737

Sophia Dorothea of Hanover
b.1687-d.1757

Frederick William I of Prussia
b.1688-d.1740

Augusta of Saxe-Gotha
b.1719-d.1772

Frederick, Prince of Wales
b.1707-d.1751
In 1714, at just seven years old, Frederick was separated from his parents and appointed as ceremonial Head of the House of Hanover, as the rest of his family departed for England. He lived life to the full, plunging headfirst into life as George I's favourite grandchild.

Anne
b.1709-d.1759

William IV of Orange
b.1711-d.1751

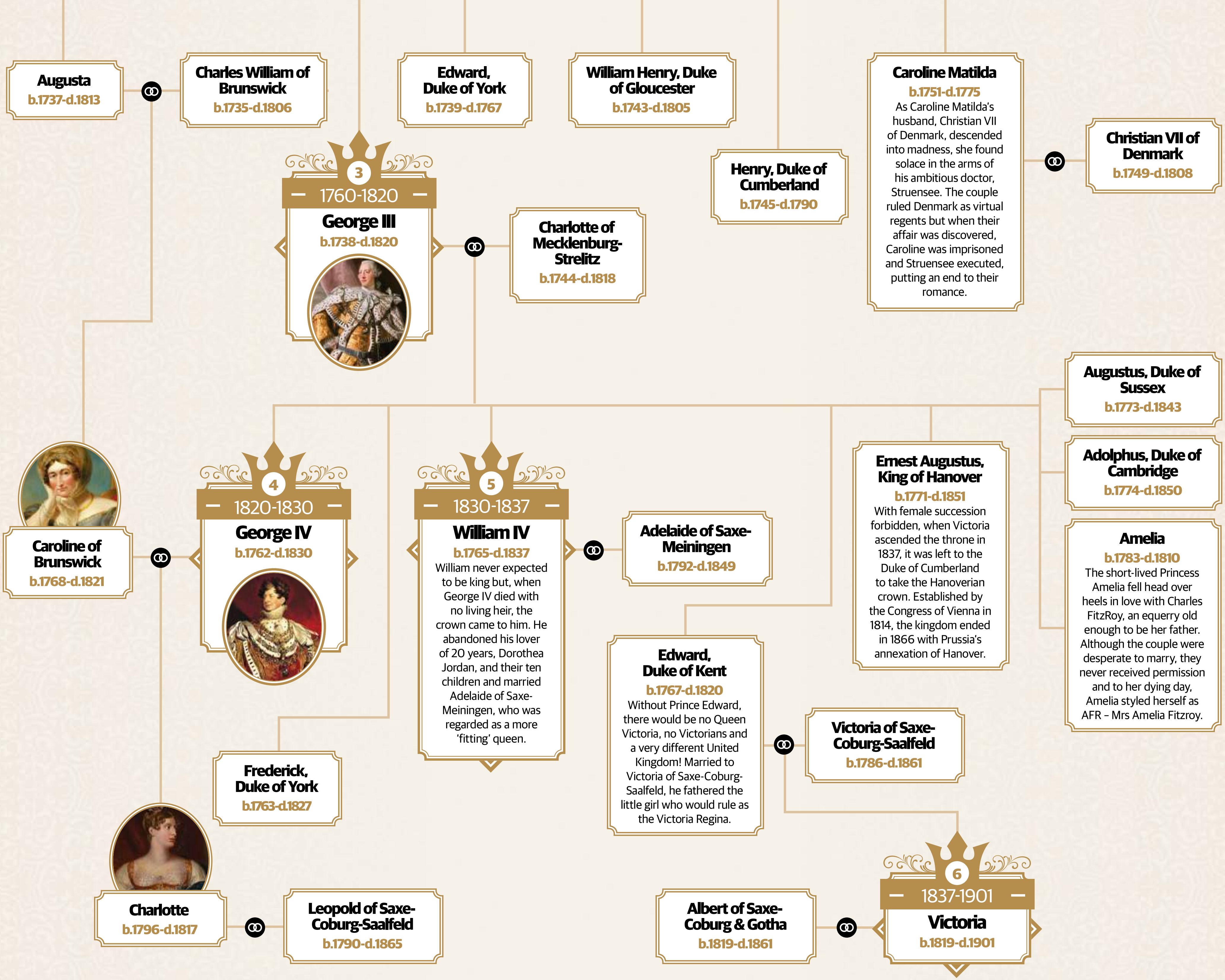
William Duke of Cumberland
b.1721-d.1765

Mary
b.1723-d.1772

Frederick II of Hesse-Kassel
b.1720-d.1785

Frederick V of Denmark
b.1723-d.1766

Louise
b.1724-d.1751
Married to the womanising King Frederick V, Louise was crowned Queen of Denmark and Norway in 1746. Against all the odds, their arranged marriage was a happy one and the good-natured and sometimes long-suffering Louise was hugely popular in her adopted land.



Augusta
b.1737-d.1813

Charles William of Brunswick
b.1735-d.1806

Edward, Duke of York
b.1739-d.1767

William Henry, Duke of Gloucester
b.1743-d.1805

Henry, Duke of Cumberland
b.1745-d.1790

Caroline Matilda
b.1751-d.1775
As Caroline Matilda's husband, Christian VII of Denmark, descended into madness, she found solace in the arms of his ambitious doctor, Struensee. The couple ruled Denmark as virtual regents but when their affair was discovered, Caroline was imprisoned and Struensee executed, putting an end to their romance.

Christian VII of Denmark
b.1749-d.1808

3 – 1760-1820 –
George III
b.1738-d.1820

Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz
b.1744-d.1818

Caroline of Brunswick
b.1768-d.1821

4 – 1820-1830 –
George IV
b.1762-d.1830

5 – 1830-1837 –
William IV
b.1765-d.1837
William never expected to be king but, when George IV died with no living heir, the crown came to him. He abandoned his lover of 20 years, Dorothea Jordan, and their ten children and married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, who was regarded as a more 'fitting' queen.

Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen
b.1792-d.1849

Ernest Augustus, King of Hanover
b.1771-d.1851
With female succession forbidden, when Victoria ascended the throne in 1837, it was left to the Duke of Cumberland to take the Hanoverian crown. Established by the Congress of Vienna in 1814, the kingdom ended in 1866 with Prussia's annexation of Hanover.

Augustus, Duke of Sussex
b.1773-d.1843

Adolphus, Duke of Cambridge
b.1774-d.1850

Amelia
b.1783-d.1810
The short-lived Princess Amelia fell head over heels in love with Charles FitzRoy, an equerry old enough to be her father. Although the couple were desperate to marry, they never received permission and to her dying day, Amelia styled herself as AFR – Mrs Amelia Fitzroy.

Frederick, Duke of York
b.1763-d.1827

Edward, Duke of Kent
b.1767-d.1820
Without Prince Edward, there would be no Queen Victoria, no Victorians and a very different United Kingdom! Married to Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld, he fathered the little girl who would rule as the Victoria Regina.

Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld
b.1786-d.1861

Charlotte
b.1796-d.1817

Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld
b.1790-d.1865

Albert of Saxe-Coburg & Gotha
b.1819-d.1861

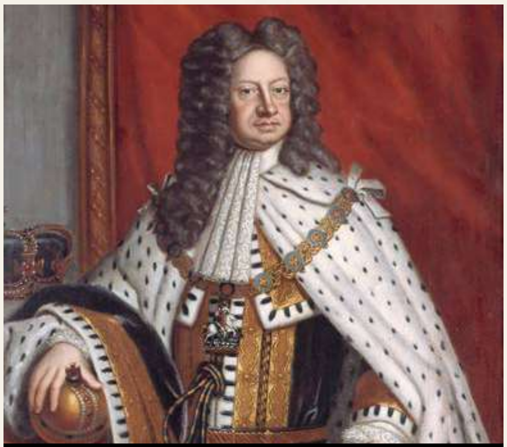
6 – 1837-1901 –
Victoria
b.1819-d.1901

© Getty

GEORGIAN KINGS

Meet the kings who defined the Georgian era, each exhibiting very different approaches to the throne and steering Britain through tumultuous changes

Written by Catherine Curzon


He might have been the first Georgian king of England, but George I arrived with a 100-strong German escort

George I

Reign *1714-1727*

The German-speaking first Georgian king inherited a realm on the brink of modernisation and a dangerously ambitious parliament

When George, elector of Hanover, inherited the British crown, he was already in his mid-50s. The Glorious Revolution changed England forever and, thanks to the Act of Settlement, his Protestant faith meant he leapfrogged over more than 50 would-be heirs who were faithful to Rome.

Accompanied by over 100 German courtiers and advisors, George arrived in England to a firestorm of protest from the Scottish Jacobites. Led by James Edward Stuart, the Old Pretender, they were determined to see the Catholic Stuarts take back the crown they believed was rightfully theirs.

Seeing rather too much Tory sympathy for the disenfranchised Scots, George preferred the Whigs, who had been keen supporters of the Hanoverian claim to the throne. He did invite some Tories into government alongside the Whigs but they declined, preferring to rely on success at the forthcoming election. Instead the Whigs won a decisive victory, ensuring their political dominance. George's opponents, meanwhile, forged bonds with his son, the future George II, that strained the already difficult familial relationship to breaking point.

Not content with dealing with domestic issues, George took an interest in foreign policy. He proved to be a shrewd politician and his support of the Triple Alliance with France and the Dutch Republic against Spain, was further strengthened when Spanish forces joined an aborted rebellion in Scotland in 1719.

At home, George's dabbling in economic affairs was to prove considerably less successful. Encouraged by his mistress, he became a supporter and governor of the South Sea Company, a company that underwrote the national debt for a handsome interest rate and promised its shareholders they'd make a killing buying stocks in the company. Unbeknown to the king, it was a scam. Little knowing they would never see a penny in return, excited investors from across the social divide clamoured to buy up stock and make the company directors very rich.

When the so-called 'South Sea Bubble' burst, fortunes were lost and families ruined. But for the shrewd intervention of Robert Walpole to steer the country back into the black, Britain might have been bankrupted. Stung by the scandal, George took a backseat in politics from then on. George I remained a distant figure throughout his reign, partly due to his stubborn preference for the German language and his fondness for trips to Hanover. When he died in 1727, his son inherited a land ready for a different sort of monarch.

Defining moments

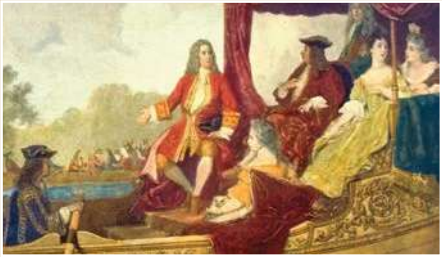
The Act of Settlement

When the Glorious Revolution dethroned James II in England in 1688, it marked the end of Catholic rule. The 1701 Act of Settlement expressly forbade Catholics from wearing the crown and paved the way for the Protestant family from Hanover.

GULIELMUS TERTIUS DEI GRATIA

Water Music

George I commissioned Handel to write *Water Music*, which premiered in 1717. With the orchestra sailing on a Thames barge and the royal party on another, Londoners took to the river in their own vessels to enjoy the concert.



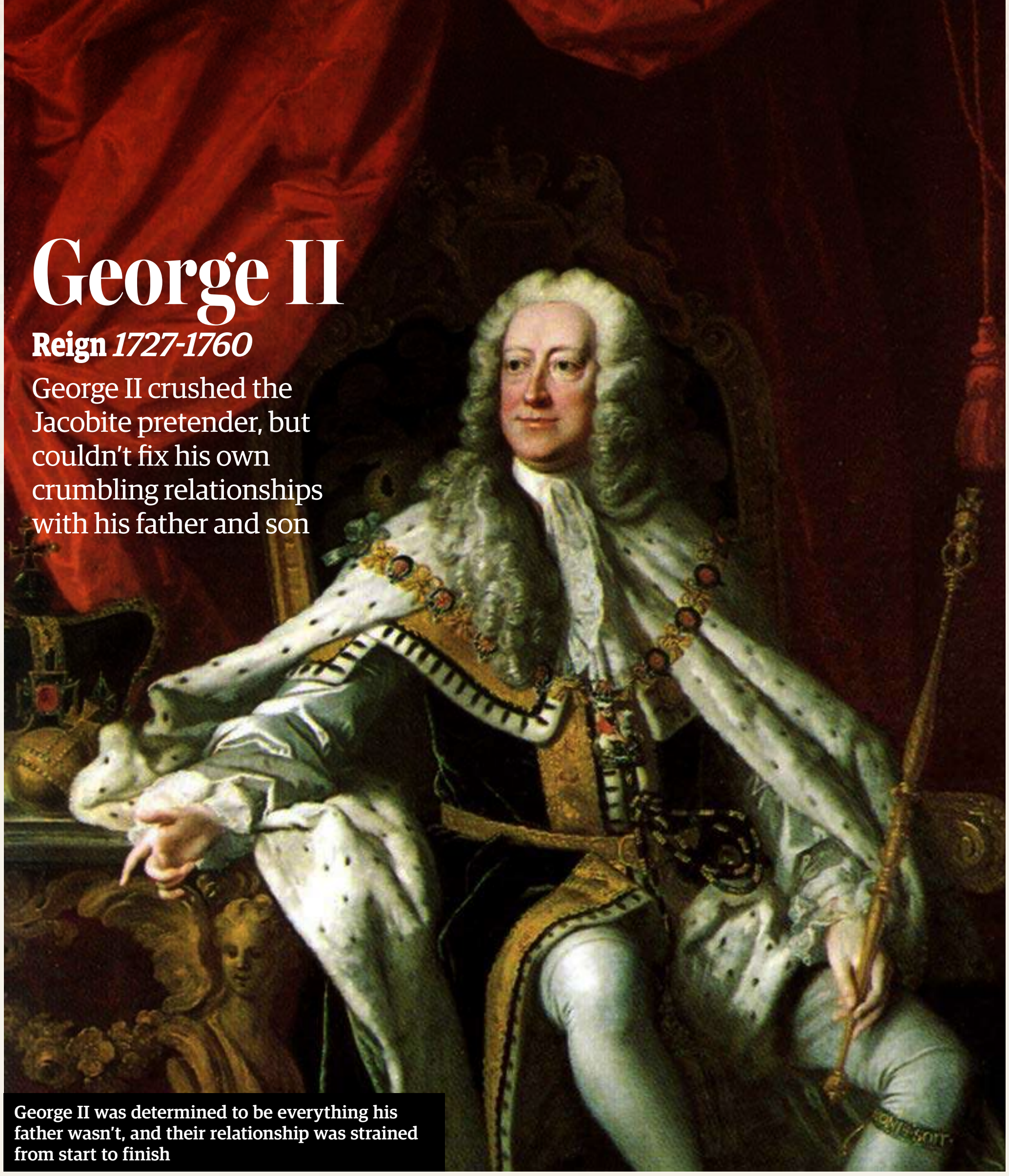
The South Sea Bubble

George's unwitting support of the South Sea Company's stock market scam nearly plunged England into the red. His reputation was badly damaged and Robert Walpole took full advantage of the fallout to take control of the government.

George II

Reign *1727-1760*

George II crushed the Jacobite pretender, but couldn't fix his own crumbling relationships with his father and son



George II was determined to be everything his father wasn't, and their relationship was strained from start to finish

George II and his father, George I, just didn't get on. The seeds of trouble were sewn when George II was just a boy and his mother was taken from him and locked away. Her name was forbidden and portraits of her were removed, causing a deep resentment of his father that festered over the years as he grew. The two men couldn't have been more different. George I was dour and introverted, while his son was cheery and outgoing, far more like his mother than his father.

By the time the two Georges arrived in England in 1714, they were already at odds. In this exciting new land, things only got worse. The newly created Prince of Wales was a keen supporter of his father's political opponents. At his Leicester House home, he established a rival court where fashionable and influential Tories could thrive in the hope of capitalising on their friendship in the future, when the prince became king.

By the time George II came to the throne in 1727 he was already estranged from his own son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, and history repeated itself – Frederick set up his own opposing court at Leicester House, just as his father had done before him. He even campaigned on behalf of his father's opponents in the 1741 general election. George II repaid his son's perceived disloyalty by refusing to appoint Frederick as regent when he was called back to Hanover on business. He personally fought alongside British troops in The War of the Austrian Succession, the last British monarch to do so.

On his return to Great Britain, he found that there was plenty to occupy him there too, namely the renewed threat from supporters of the Scottish claim to the throne. It was now that George II's earlier political manoeuvrings came into their own. Though the Whigs held political dominance, the Tories had been less vociferous in their support of the Hanoverians. Luckily, thanks to George II's wooing of senior Tories over the years of his father's reign, they abandoned their prevailing Jacobite sympathies to remain loyal to the new king. When the Jacobite Rebellion of 1745 broke out, their support was more important than ever.

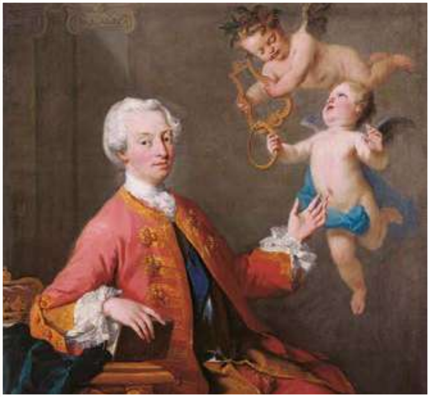
English forces crushed the Jacobites at the Battle of Culloden, securing the House of Hanover on the throne for generations and sending Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender, into exile for the rest of his days.

When his troublesome son and heir, Frederick, died in 1751, George admitted that he was glad to see him gone. He built his relationship with his widowed daughter-in-law, Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, and began to prepare his grandson, George, for the role he would one day inherit.

Defining moments

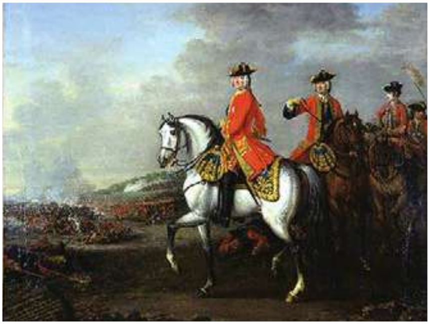
Lost at sea

When George II failed to return from Hanover in 1736, gossips claimed he had drowned. Frederick celebrated his father's death jubilantly, incurring his distraught mother's wrath. In fact, George was alive and suffering from nothing worse than a case of piles!



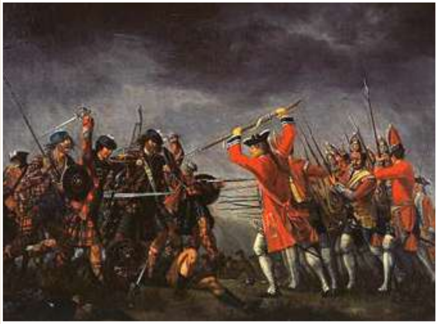
The Battle of Dettingen

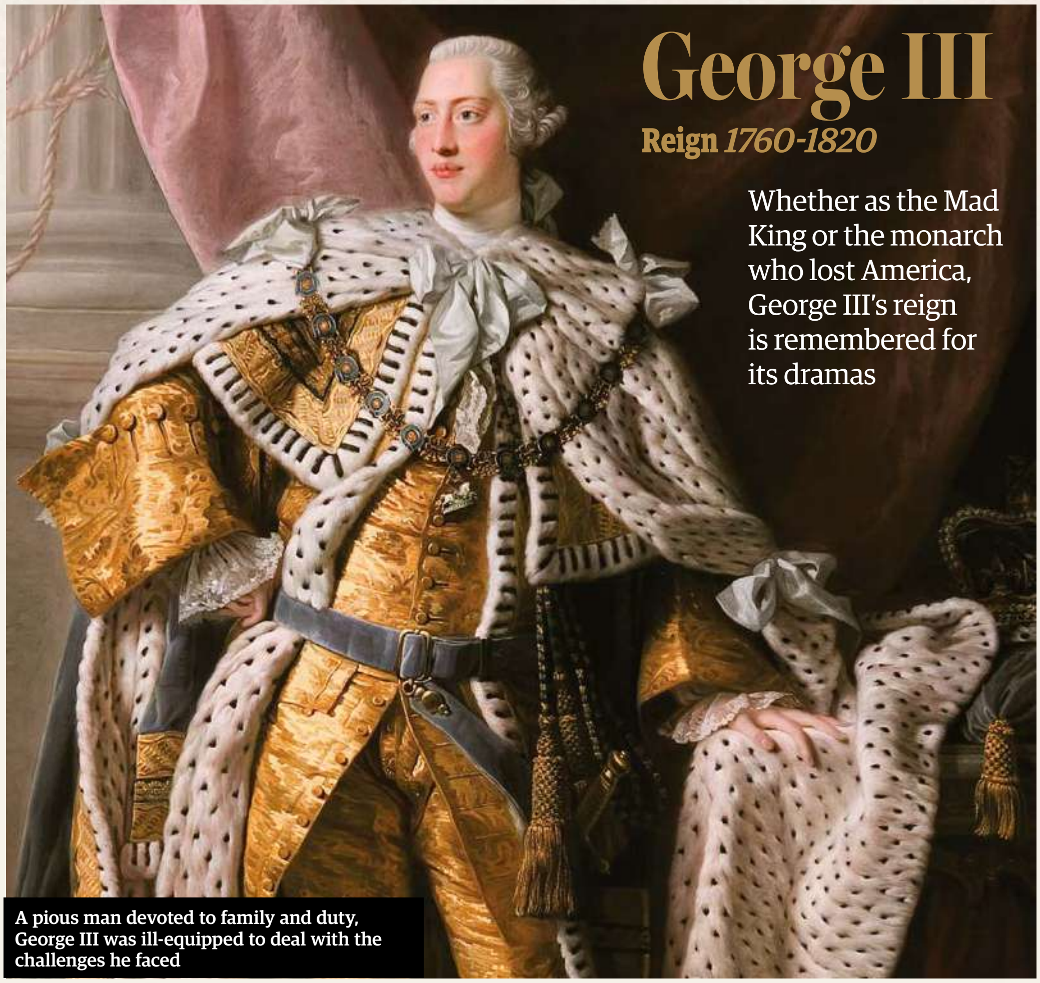
When the combined forces of Britain, Hanover and Hesse faced the French at Dettingen, George II became the last British monarch to lead his troops into battle. The allied victory frustrated French hopes of winning the War of the Austrian Succession.



The Battle of Culloden

This infamous battle ended Jacobite hopes of restoring the Stuarts to the throne. The king's son, William, Duke of Cumberland, led the crown's forces and the brutal so-called 'pacification of the Highlands' that followed, earning himself the nickname 'Butcher'.





George III

Reign *1760-1820*

Whether as the Mad King or the monarch who lost America, George III's reign is remembered for its dramas

A pious man devoted to family and duty, George III was ill-equipped to deal with the challenges he faced

As the third-longest reigning monarch in British history, King George III might be said to have lived and breathed for his country. He was the first King George to be born and bred in England. He widely considered himself English through and through, something his supporters were always quick to repeat given the German origins of his predecessors. George succeeded his grandfather when he was just 22 years old, relying on the guidance of his childhood mentor John Stuart, the 3rd Earl of Bute. Bute was a favourite of George's mother and the young king's reliance on the Scotsman soured his relationship with other politicians from the off.

Political instability marked much of the reign of George III, but he found solace in his home life with his wife, Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and their children. He was unique among the Georgian kings for having no mistresses and believed that his family and nation alike should follow his own pious, reserved example.

George III steered Britain through the disastrous and expensive American Revolutionary War, battling with his own mental health problems as he did so. The loss of the Thirteen Colonies caused turmoil in parliament, and the king was sucked into the ensuing power struggle. He responded by appointing William Pitt the Younger as prime minister in a move that proved his political nous and won him overwhelming popularity across the nation. In his 60-year reign, George knew 14 different prime ministers, with the six Tory and eight Whig office holders proving just how changeable the political waters were during the period.

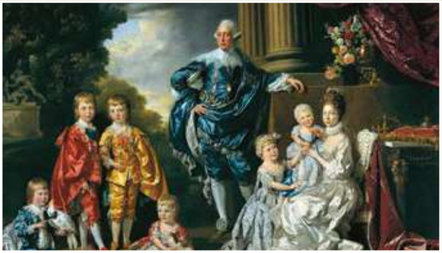
The reign of George III covered some tumultuous times, with the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars pressing on the continent. At home, the Irish Rebellion of 1798 was a timely reminder that trouble could be found on less-distant shores. In 1800, the Acts of Union created the United Kingdom, but George stopped short of granting the Irish Catholic emancipation, which he believed would be contrary to his coronation oath. Pitt had already made promises of Catholic emancipation and the king's resistance was the final straw for their always difficult relationship. Pitt resigned in 1801, though he eventually returned as prime minister three years later.

After years in the care of Dr Francis Willis, George III's madness eventually claimed him following the death of his youngest daughter, Amelia, in 1810. Though earlier episodes of what now appear to have been porphyria had been overcome, this time he didn't recover his wits. Following the transition of power to his son, George, Prince Regent, in 1811, the ailing king retired permanently to Windsor Castle where his health began to fail at an alarming rate. It was here that he died in 1820 and his passing was mourned by the nation that he had served.

Defining moments

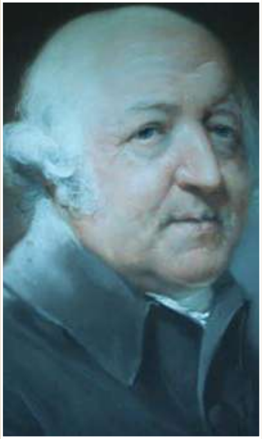
The King meets his queen

From the day of their marriage in 1761, George III and his wife, Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, were devoted to one another. Unlike those who went before and after him, George was a faithful husband who loved home and hearth.



American Revolutionary War

In what was perhaps the defining moment of George III's reign, the king tried in vain to hold onto the American colonies despite their resistance. The result was a war that lasted for eight years and resulted in independence.



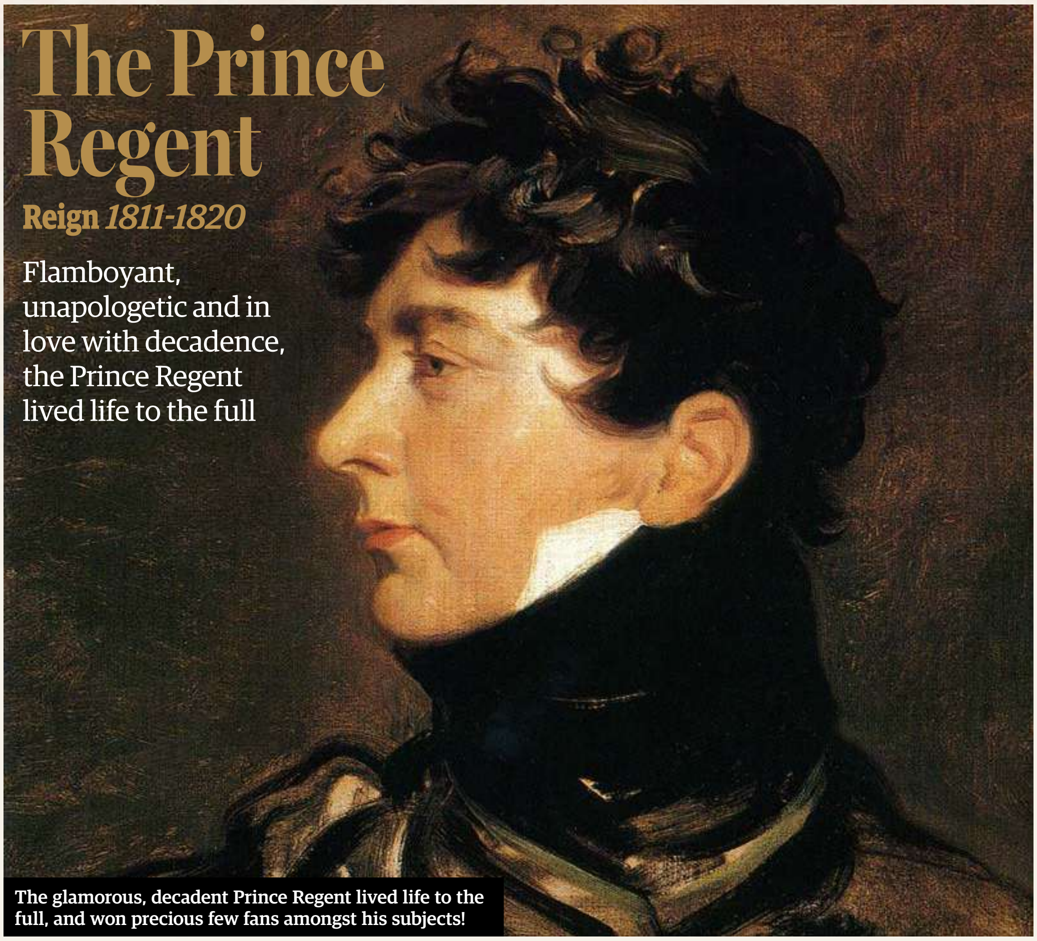
Dr Willis' patient

Dr Francis Willis was the physician and clergyman charged with maintaining the king's sanity, often using methods that seem brutal today. George's treatment at the White House in Kew left the king so distressed that he eventually had the building torn down.

The Prince Regent

Reign *1811-1820*

Flamboyant, unapologetic and in love with decadence, the Prince Regent lived life to the full



The glamorous, decadent Prince Regent lived life to the full, and won precious few fans amongst his subjects!

George, Prince of Wales, was the oldest son of George III and Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. His strict upbringing and education was focused squarely on preparing him to one day rule. Lessons and prayer were relieved only with trips to tend the vegetable patch the king gave his sons, hoping they would grow to share the passion for farming that had earned him the nickname 'Farmer George'.

In fact, the young Prince of Wales had plenty of passions, but gardening wasn't one of them. He loved art and architecture, gambling and dancing, but above all, he loved women. Once he moved into his own residence at the age of 18, George became the toast of the town. His expensive habits plunged him into debt and conflict with his father, not to mention a secret and illegal marriage with Maria Fitzherbert, a twice-widowed Roman Catholic. In return for an enormous payout, George eventually made an official marriage to his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick, but the unhappy match ended in estrangement.

Though he almost came to power during the regency crisis of 1788, the Prince of Wales didn't actually become regent until 1811, when his father succumbed entirely to mental illness. As regent, George took a backseat in government and stepped back from the selection of the prime minister, allowing the decision to be made by members of the House of Commons. The Prince Regent preferred to focus his efforts on acquiring art and antiquities, and remaining at the vanguard of fashion and all that was glamorous in the Regency era. He built palaces and pavilions, and endless gossipy column inches were filled with his extravagant exploits.

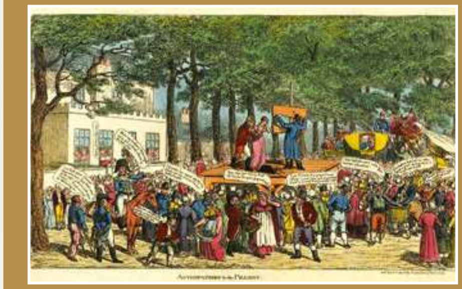
The Regency was a time of enormous contrasts, where fashion and entertainment flourished and a new industrialised future dawned. Riots and unrest broke out as the populace grew hungry, poor and disenfranchised. In a kingdom poised on the edge of the modern era, caught between the Age of Enlightenment and the Industrial Revolution, the regent kept on spending and his expensive tastes didn't sit well with a nation that was struggling to cope with what seemed like an endless series of wars. Lord Liverpool's Tory ministry clamped down hard on protestors. The repression of the Regency government remains infamous today, thanks to tragic episodes such as the notorious Peterloo Massacre in 1819.

The Regency era ended with the death of King George III in 1820 when the unpopular Prince Regent finally succeeded to the throne as King George IV. By now in his late 50s and suffering from the inevitable effects of a lifetime spent boozing, feasting and living life to the full, his reign was to prove a short one.

Defining moments

The Delicate Investigation

The 1806 Delicate Investigation sought to prove that Caroline, George's estranged wife, had given birth to an illegitimate baby. Instead Caroline proved that she'd merely adopted a child in need. George was humiliated and his wife became more popular than ever.

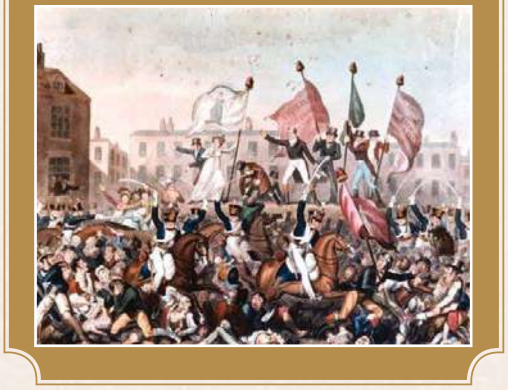


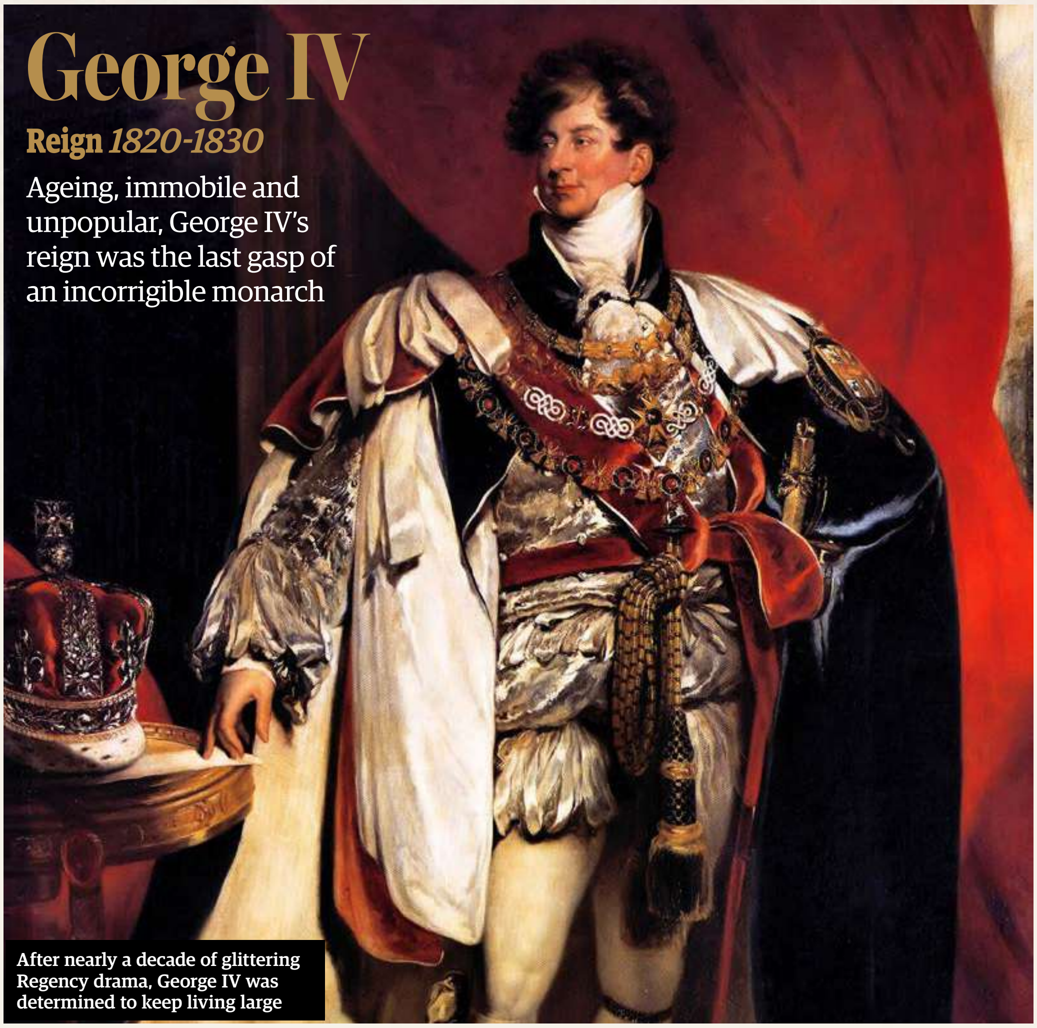
The death of Princess Charlotte

Princess Charlotte of Wales, George and Caroline's only child, died after delivering a stillborn son in 1817. The country was plunged into mourning and her distraught obstetrician, Sir Richard Croft, committed suicide just three months after her death.

The Peterloo Massacre

In 1819, the cavalry charged a peaceful protest calling for parliamentary reform at Peterloo, resulting in 15 deaths and hundreds of injuries. The Prince Regent sent his thanks to the troops, leading to widespread anger among his subjects.





George IV

Reign *1820-1830*

Ageing, immobile and unpopular, George IV's reign was the last gasp of an incorrigible monarch

After nearly a decade of glittering Regency drama, George IV was determined to keep living large

When George IV ascended the throne in 1820, he had already ruled as Prince Regent for almost a decade. His life had been one of enormous excess and extravagance. For a man who was devoted to decadence, at the age of 57, his health was already in decline.

Yet George wasn't the sort of man to let a bit of excess weight slow him down and once he became king, the first thing he wanted was a divorce. Despite a messy trial in the House of Lords, George's wish wasn't granted and Caroline of Brunswick remained his wife. Not only that, but she was now his queen. On the day of the coronation to end all coronations, George had his wife chased from Westminster Abbey then threw the party of a lifetime. It was a shrewd move and briefly transformed his unpopular reputation, with the people of Britain rallying behind their new monarch for a knees up to remember.

News of Caroline's death in 1821 gave the king something to smile about. He celebrated first with a trip to his ancestral Hanoverian kingdom, then to Scotland, becoming the first British monarch to travel north of the border in over 170 years. Although he had never been a particularly political monarch, George's youthful and rebellious foray into Whig politics moved to the Tory right as the years passed. He still refrained from too much involvement in politics, however, whether regent or king.

Like his father before him, George spent much of his later reign enjoying the seclusion of Windsor Castle. He entertained himself by goading the Duke of Wellington, by then the prime minister, falsely claiming to have been present at Waterloo and understating the duke's own important role. He also enjoyed the company of his young niece, the future Queen Victoria, and together the two would walk in the grounds of Windsor, often visiting the exotic menagerie that George had established, complete with the first giraffe ever seen in England.

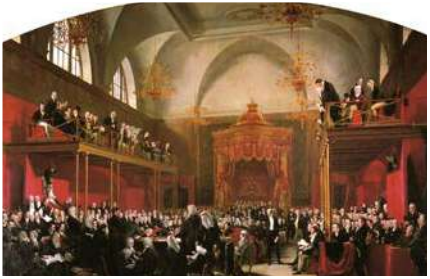
By the last months of his reign, George IV's health was in catastrophic decline. Partially blind, addicted to alcohol and laudanum, and so overweight that he couldn't even lay down to sleep, the reclusive king was confined to a chair-cum-bed where he spent his days and nights, squeezed into a vast corset and a shadow of the fashionable, pretty young man he had once been.

Under the care of his physician, Sir Henry Halford, George endured constant pain and depression, though he still kept company with the last of his mistresses. He died on 26 June 1830 and was laid to rest at Windsor wearing a miniature of Maria Fitzherbert, his secret first wife.

Defining moments

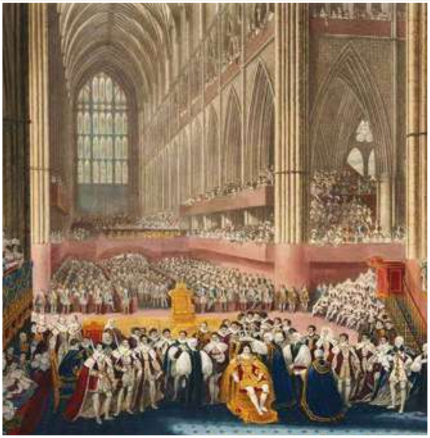
The Pains and Penalties Bill

This highly publicised trial in 1820 was intended to prove that Caroline of Brunswick had committed adultery and secure George a divorce. Once again she emerged triumphant and as she revelled in her victory, George was more loathed than ever.



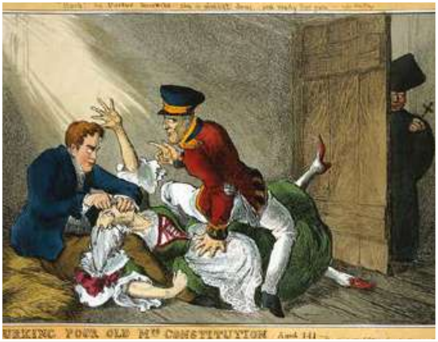
A coronation for the ages

The new king's coronation was the culmination of a lifetime of largesse. The massive pageant cost the equivalent of £20 million and began in a public procession to Westminster Abbey, ending in feasting and public fetes across the land.



Catholic emancipation in Ireland

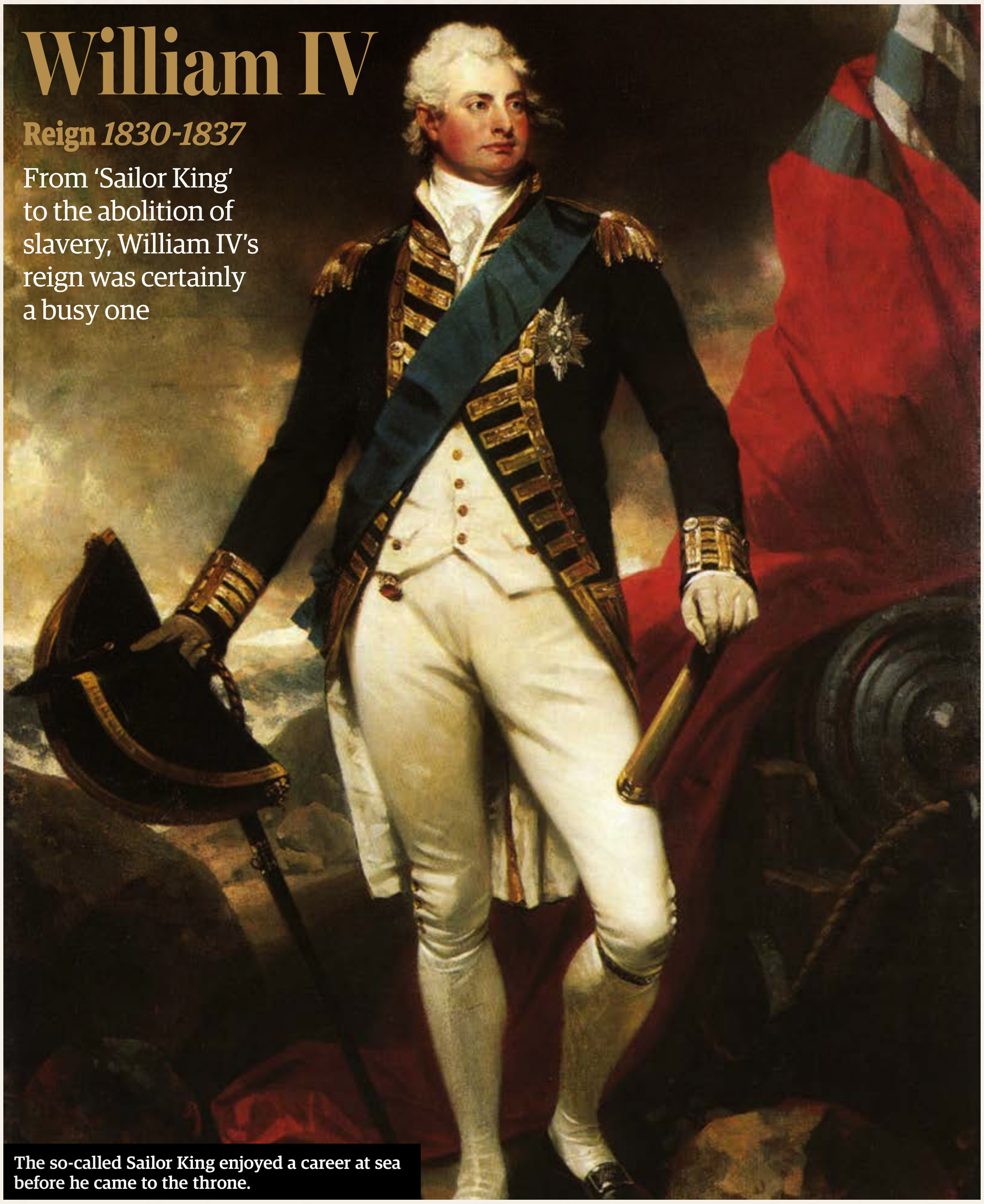
Though he had called for Catholic emancipation in his youth, George refused to support the Catholic Relief Bill in 1829. The cabinet resigned en masse and George had no choice but to back the bill to avoid a political catastrophe.


URKING YOUR OLD Mrs CONSTITUTION

William IV

Reign *1830-1837*

From 'Sailor King' to the abolition of slavery, William IV's reign was certainly a busy one



The so-called Sailor King enjoyed a career at sea before he came to the throne.

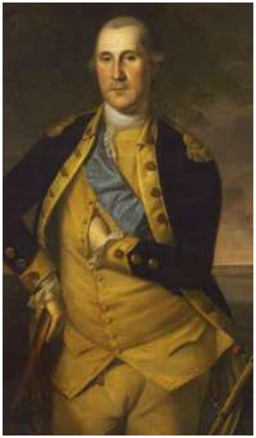
But for the tragic early death of Princess Charlotte of Wales, William IV wouldn't have been king at all. While his brother was prepared for life on the throne, William embarked on a successful career with the Royal Navy. This took him to New York during the American Revolutionary War and he rose swiftly through the ranks. When he left active service in 1790, the Duke of Clarence took an active interest in policies, speaking out on a number of matters including the abolition of slavery. He believed slaves were well cared for and would face deprivation if given their freedom.

For 20 years, William lived with the actress Dorothea Jordan. Though the couple had 10 children, they never married and their relationship ended when the death of Princess Charlotte of Wales placed William second in line. Ahead of him was his brother Prince Frederick, Duke of York and Albany, whose childless marriage had ended in separation. William left Mrs Jordan and married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen. Though their marriage was happy, their only living children died in infancy.

William was appointed Lord High Admiral in 1827. He proved to be a keen reformer, but his time in office was short-lived. He resigned in 1828 at the request of Wellington, the prime minister. When William came to the throne in 1830, the public regarded him as something of the spiritual heir to his father, George III. Almost as soon as he became king, the Duke of Wellington's government, which William favoured, was voted out of office. It was replaced by Lord Grey's Whigs, who came armed with a raft of reforms intended to address inequalities in the electoral system. William's opposition to these reforms dented his popularity.

William remained politically active, even dismissing Lord Melbourne as prime minister in 1834, though he returned in the subsequent general election. The king died in 1837 and the Georgian era gave way to the Victorian.

Defining moments

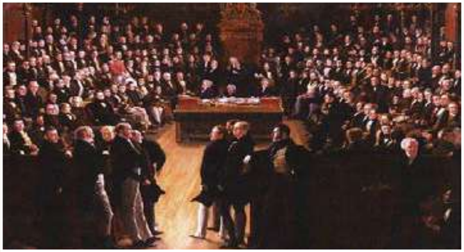


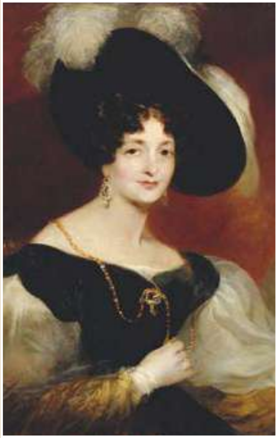
A foiled kidnap

When William was serving with the Royal Navy during the American Revolutionary War, George Washington approved a plan to abduct him. The scheme was foiled when word of it reached the British, and William was assigned bodyguards to ensure his safety.

The reform crisis

The reform crisis did much to damage William IV's public standing and he was pelted with mud and insults in the streets. The king weathered the storm when the British people chose to blame his German wife for counselling him badly.





A family at war

William loathed the ambitious Duchess of Kent, mother of the future Queen Victoria, and resolved to live long enough to see Victoria reach 18, so her mother could never be regent. He succeeded, dying one month after she came of age.

© Getty, Alamy, Wiki

GEORGIAN QUEENS

They are often overshadowed by the queens of other dynasties, but the Georgian queens were some of the most intelligent, curious and fascinating figures in British history

Written by Jessica Leggett

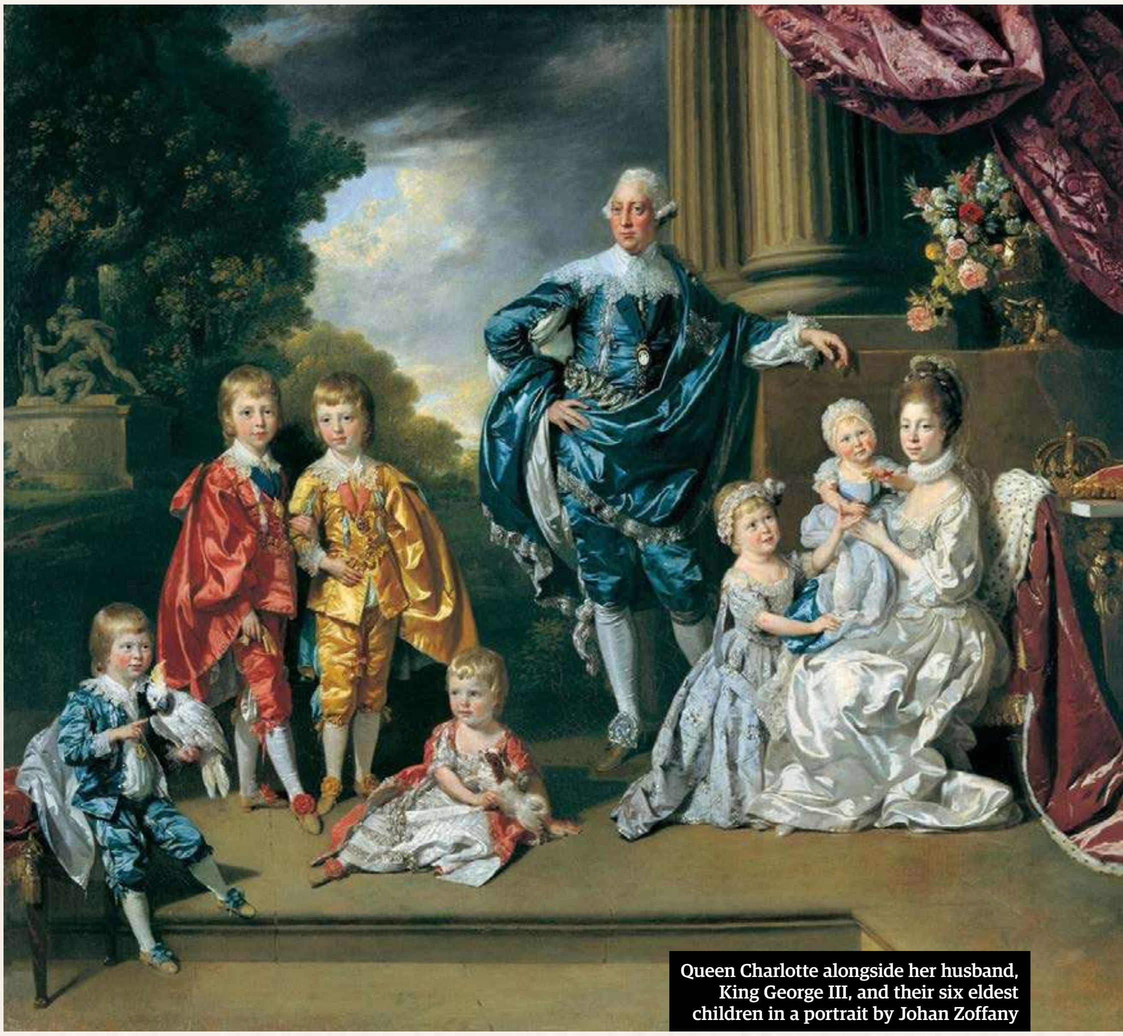
The role of a queen was unlike any other at court, to the point where there are many different types to consider. For example, a queen consort is the wife of a reigning king while a queen regnant, such as Queen Elizabeth I, inherits her own right to rule. As for a dowager queen, she is the widow of a king while a queen mother, also widowed, is the mother of the reigning monarch.

The queen's type of role was just one of the many factors that affected her position and her ability to demonstrate her influence at court. In the case of queen consorts, their most important duty was to provide an heir for the throne and a spare if at all possible, a task that all of the Georgian queens achieved apart from the last, Queen Adelaide.

Motherhood was not the only role that queen consorts had to fulfil. As the highest-ranking woman in the country, it was up to the queen to set an example for her courtiers and subjects as a model of piety and chastity. While Adelaide never had a child, she was fondly remembered among her people for her religious devotion, while Queen Caroline of Brunswick was disgraced for her indiscreet behaviour.

Although consorts were not expected to wield power, unless they were acting as regents for their husbands or children, there were some who managed to do so. It was possible for a queen to become politically influential through her husband, if they had a good relationship, or likewise through politicians.

However, in some cases it was made clear that a queen was not to get involved and she would be shut out from such discussions. A lot of queen consorts chose to be influential in many other ways, becoming prolific patrons of the arts and setting the latest cultural trends at court and in wider society.



Queen Charlotte alongside her husband, King George III, and their six eldest children in a portrait by Johan Zoffany

Queens could often find themselves competing with their husband's mistresses. Kings were expected to take other lovers as a sign of virility, and if these affairs produced children then it was proof of his fertility. Some mistresses posed a serious threat to the queen – it is no accident that Queen Caroline kept her husband's lovers in her service, to reinforce her position above them.

Sophia Dorothea of Celle

Husband *George I*

Accused of adultery and locked away in a castle, Sophia Dorothea was the queen that never was

Out of all the wives of the Georgian kings, Sophia Dorothea of Celle arguably has the most tragic tale. Born in Celle, Germany in 1666, the daughter of a German duke and his mistress, the matter of Sophia Dorothea's marriage was discussed from an early age. There was a potential match with the future king of Denmark and at one point, an engagement to the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel.

However, her father's sister-in-law Duchess Sophia (who would later be known as Electress Sophia) suggested a match with her son and Sophia Dorothea's first cousin, George Louis, Electoral Prince of Hanover. The engagement to the duke was subsequently broken off and Sophia Dorothea was informed of her new fiancée, with the duchess bringing her soon-to-be daughter-in-law a miniature of her son.

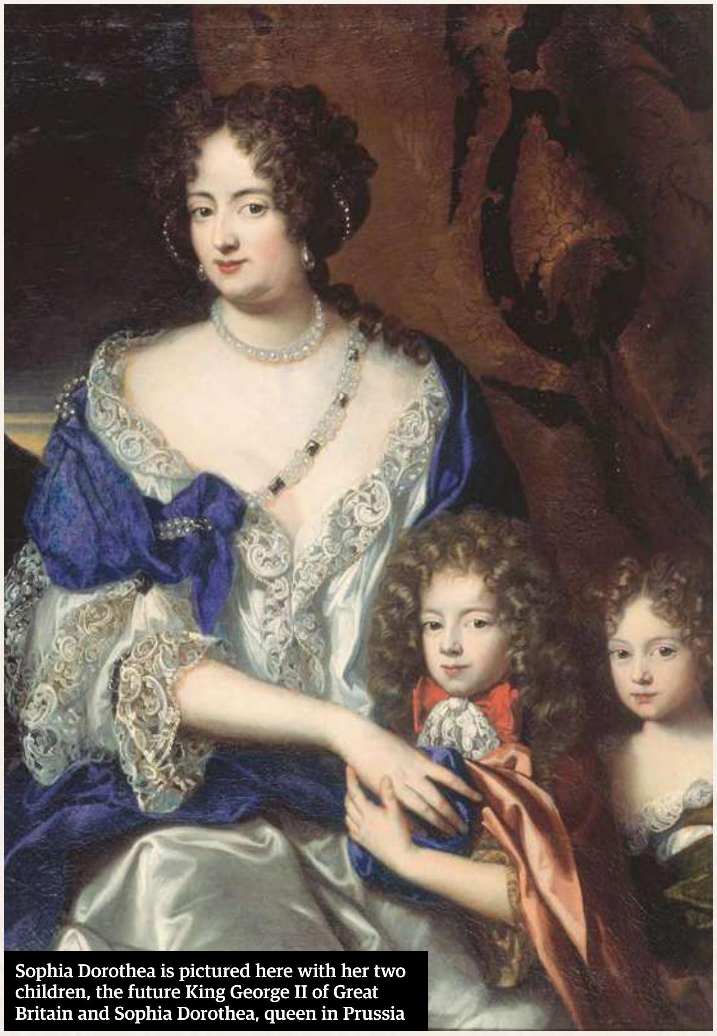
Sophia Dorothea hated this new arrangement but nonetheless, the pair were married in November 1682 when Sophia Dorothea was just 16 years old. Unsurprisingly, they did not get along at all. George was not fond of his new wife either and they argued frequently, although the couple did manage to produce two children together: George Augustus in 1683 and Sophia Dorothea in 1686.

For a brief moment, the situation between Sophia Dorothea and George improved after the birth of their children - but it took a turn for the worse after George took a mistress. Neglecting his wife and sometimes behaving violently towards her, Sophia Dorothea felt isolated and alone, until she decided to take a lover of her own – Philipp Christoph von Königsmarck, who was a Swedish count.

To prevent a scandalous elopement, George ordered his guards to arrest the count in July 1694. What exactly happened next remains uncertain, but the count disappeared and was likely murdered, with his body buried under the floorboards of the palace. Afterwards, George had his marriage to Sophia Dorothea dissolved on the grounds that she had abandoned him, before having her imprisoned in Ahlden House in Celle.

Not only had her freedom been taken away, but Sophia Dorothea was forbidden from marrying again and from seeing her children or her father. She could not go anywhere unaccompanied unless it was in the courtyard, although she was given an income, servants and a supervised carriage ride outside of the castle.

Sophia Dorothea died in 1726 after spending more than three decades imprisoned. By now, George was king of Great Britain and he refused to allow mourning for her in London or Hanover. As their marriage ended before George assumed the British throne, Sophia Dorothea never became queen consort but her son would eventually succeed his father as King George II.

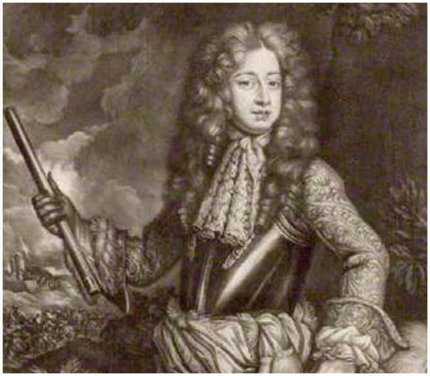


Sophia Dorothea is pictured here with her two children, the future King George II of Great Britain and Sophia Dorothea, queen in Prussia

Defining moments

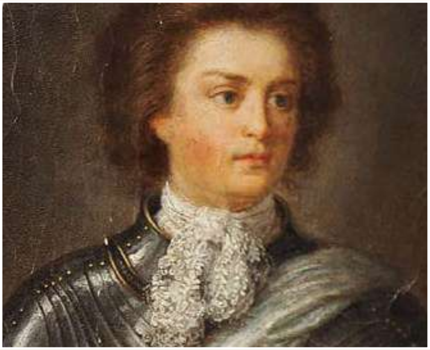
The first meeting

Sophia Dorothea was far from pleased with the engagement and threw the miniature of George at the wall, screaming "I will not marry the pig snout!" Unfortunately, her protestations were of no use and she was forced to accept the engagement – during her first meeting with George, Sophia Dorothea fainted.



The last straw

Despite having his own affair, George was infuriated when he discovered his wife's infidelity. It led to a violent argument between the estranged couple, with Sophia Dorothea's attendants pulling George away as he strangled her. Terrified, Sophia Dorothea decided to secretly elope with the count, but rumours of their plans reached George.



Princess of Ahlden

As a result of her long imprisonment at Ahlden House, Sophia Dorothea became known as the 'princess of Ahlden'. When she eventually died, her daughter ordered for court mourning dress to be worn, a decision that infuriated her father when he found out.

Caroline of Ansbach

Husband *George II*

Queen Caroline was one of Great Britain's most beloved queen consorts and the real power behind the throne

Caroline was the daughter of John, Margrave of Brandenberg-Ansbach, the ruler of Ansbach, a small German state. Considered beautiful and intelligent, she was a popular choice of bride in Europe, eventually marrying Prince George Augustus of Hanover on 22 August 1705.

Their marriage had been arranged not only for political reasons, but also for love. The prince's father, George Louis, Elector of Hanover (later King George I), did not want his son to end up in a loveless and unhappy marriage like he had. He organised for his son to meet his prospective bride, with the prince travelling to the Ansbach court incognito in June 1705. Although Caroline saw through George's disguise, the pair were attracted to one another and the marriage went ahead quickly.

Caroline endured ten pregnancies between 1707 and 1724, with seven of her children surviving to adulthood. In 1714, she moved to Great Britain with her husband and family after her father-in-law succeeded to the British throne, although they left their son and heir, Frederick, in Hanover in the care of tutors.

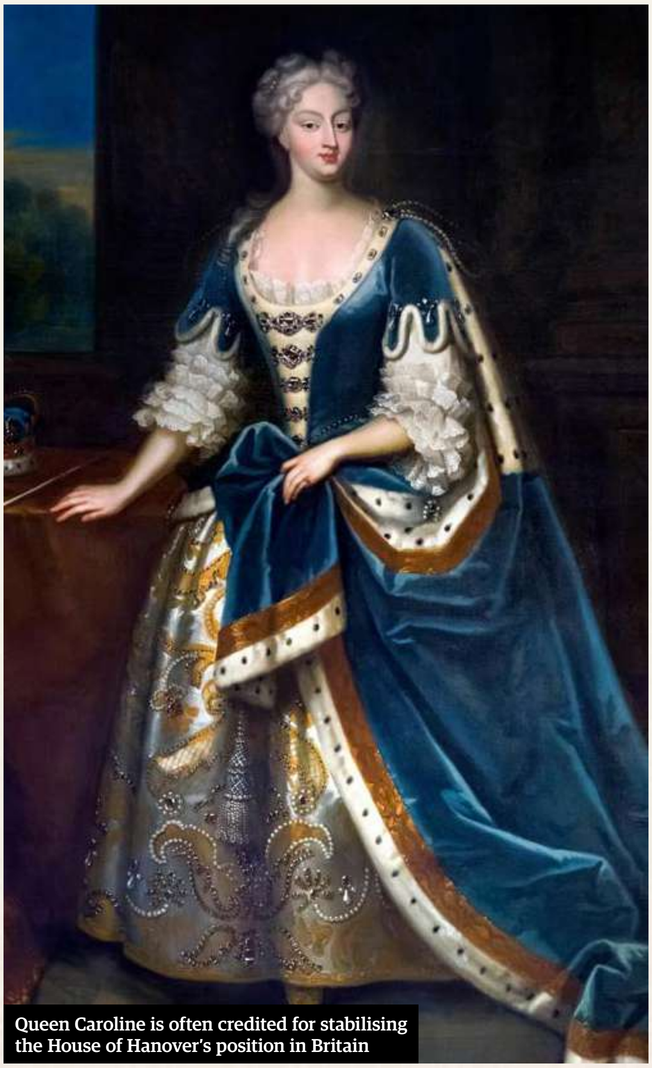
As the new princess of Wales, Caroline became known for her intellect, curiosity and love for reading, with 3,000 books in her collection. She could speak five languages fluently and loved to engage with the discussions of the day, at a time when the Enlightenment movement was in full swing. Many agreed that Caroline was wiser than her husband, who many perceived to be hapless.

Caroline was known to host salons that included some of the best minds in philosophy, medicine, literature and science. She corresponded with famed philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz as well as his rival, Issac Newton, who even recommended tutors for her children.

As princess of Wales, Caroline was a prominent supporter of inoculation, a new medical procedure, and famously had her children inoculated against the dreaded smallpox after the outbreak of 1722. Her faith in the procedure convinced other people that it was safe and led to a rise in the number of children who received the inoculation.

Caroline also wielded great political influence, particularly through her friendship with Sir Robert Walpole, Great Britain's first prime minister. Together, they orchestrated a reconciliation between King George and the prince of Wales, at least for the sake of appearances. Although her husband despised Walpole, it was Caroline who convinced George to retain him after he ascended the throne in 1727.

During her time as queen, Caroline held four regencies on behalf of her husband during his visits to Hanover. She dedicated much of her time to refurbishing the palaces and gardens and was known for being an avid art collector. She was popular in her adopted country and her death in 1737 provoked widespread mourning, as well as devastating her husband.

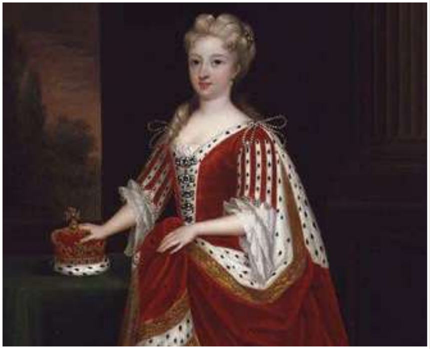


Queen Caroline is often credited for stabilising the House of Hanover's position in Britain

Defining moments

A new title

When her husband was made prince of Wales, Caroline became the first princess of Wales in 200 years – the last one had been Catherine of Aragon, during her marriage to Prince Arthur of Wales. With her new title, Caroline became the highest-ranking woman in Britain.

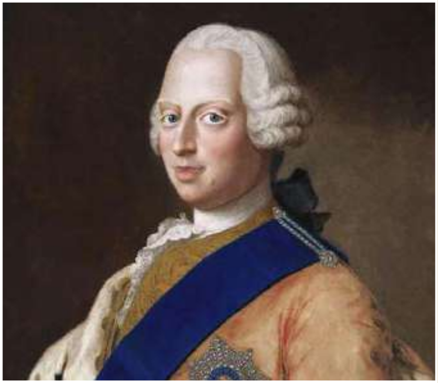


Britain's new consort

After the death of King George I, Caroline was crowned queen of Great Britain alongside her husband on 11 October 1727. The coronation ceremony was held at Westminster Abbey and Caroline became the first consort to be crowned in almost 125 years.

Time to shine

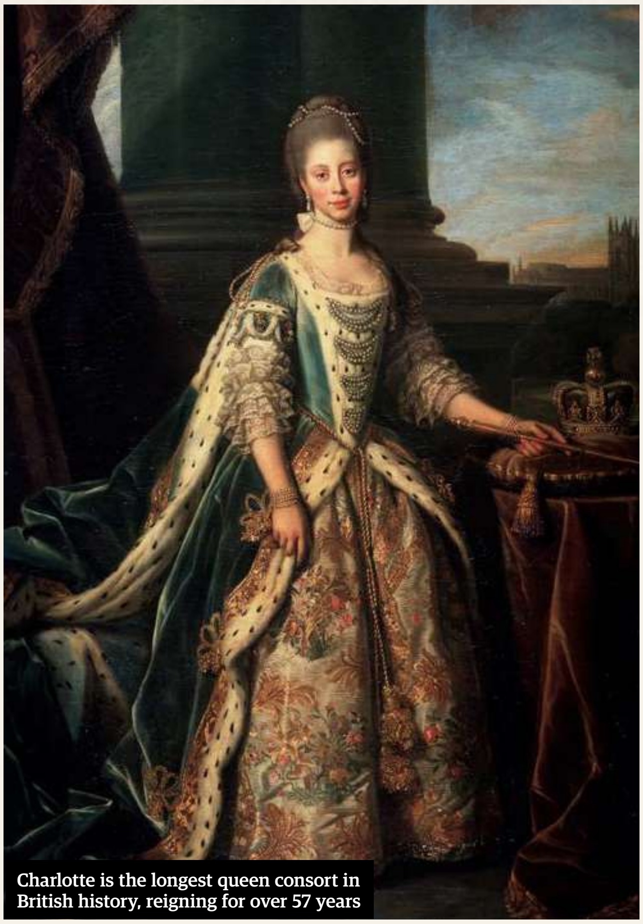
As King George II was also elector of Hanover, he was required to visit his homeland. To ensure their son and heir, Frederick, would not assume the regency during his absences, a second Regency Act was passed in 1728 that named Caroline as regent.



Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz

Husband *George II*

Queen Charlotte made a name for herself as a prolific patron of the arts, while supporting her mentally ill husband



Charlotte is the longest queen consort in British history, reigning for over 57 years

Just like Queen Caroline, Queen Charlotte was another German consort, this time hailing from the small duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. She was just 17 years old when she married 22-year-old King George III in 1761 – it was arranged quickly, as George had succeeded his grandfather, King George II, the previous year and there was concern over his unmarried status and the lack of an heir.

These fears were alleviated when Charlotte produced a male heir, the future King George IV, less than a year after her marriage. The royal couple would go on to have a remarkable 15 children together, with 13 of them living on to adulthood. Unlike his predecessors, George never had a mistress and his marriage to Charlotte remained happy, at least until his devastating mental illness took hold.

Initially, Charlotte struggled to carve her place at the British court as she found efforts frustrated by her influential mother-in-law, Princess Augusta. Although George had made it clear to Charlotte that she was not to get involved with politics as queen, she did exercise some influence through him and would make recommendations where she saw fit.

Charlotte was known for her wide-ranging patronage, particularly involving music and the arts, and was a patron of German composer Johann Christian Bach. Along with her husband, Charlotte supported numerous British manufacturers including cabinetmaker William Vile, silversmith Thomas Heming, potter Josiah Wedgwood, and she was a noted patron of famed landscape gardener Lancelot 'Capability' Brown.

As an amateur botanist, Charlotte created her own botanical drawings and pressed and catalogued the plants that grew at Kew Palace. An avid reader, she also amassed numerous books dedicated to botany, literature and the theatre, while surrounding herself with intellectuals of the day.

The queen also concerned herself with philanthropy and was known for her involvement with public health. In 1809, she became the patron of the General Lying-In Hospital, one of the first maternity hospitals in Great Britain and helped to save it from closure – it remains today as Queen Charlotte's and Chelsea hospital.

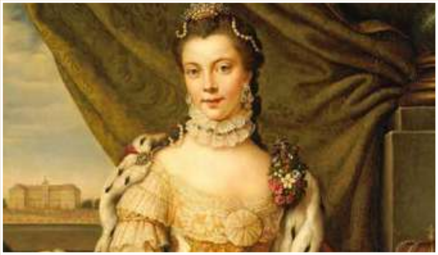
From 1811, King George was placed under Charlotte's guardianship as his descent into madness became permanent, while their son was appointed as prince regent. The queen had already distanced herself from her husband for a few years, upset by his mental instability and afraid of his violent behaviour, though she remained loyal to him.

The stress of her husband's illness had taken its toll on Charlotte, turning her hair white and sending her into bouts of depression. For last few months of her life, the queen suffered from dropsy and she eventually developed fatal pneumonia. Charlotte died at Kew Palace in November 1818 with the prince regent by her side, having been queen consort for almost six decades. The king, now suffering from dementia, remained unaware of her death, dying himself just over a year later.

Defining moments

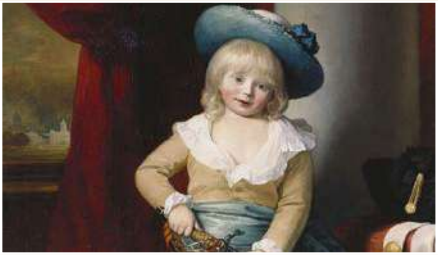
A young queen consort

Charlotte married King George III in September 1761, after a difficult journey from her native duchy to England. The couple's first meeting was on their wedding day and the new queen could not speak a word of English, but she quickly picked it up.



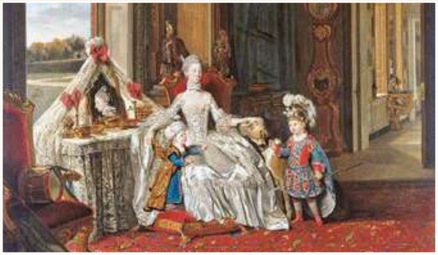
Death of her children

The deaths of Charlotte's two sons, Prince Alfred and Prince Octavius, after they were inoculated against the smallpox virus came as a blow to the royal family. The two boys died within a year of each other, leaving the queen heartbroken.



The king's madness

Charlotte was terrified after witnessing the king undergo a bout of mental illness in 1788. However, she was unaware of the first episode that had taken place in 1765, with Princess Augusta and Lord Bute choosing to keep it from her.



Caroline of Brunswick

Husband *George IV*

Scandal, drama and salacious rumours were never far away when it came to Queen Caroline

Born as a princess of Brunswick, Caroline was a niece of King George III through her mother, Princess Augusta of Great Britain. In 1794, Caroline agreed to marry her first cousin, the Prince of Wales, which was destined to be a disastrous spectacle as the prince was already illegally married to his mistress, Maria Fitzherbert. Drowning in debt, Parliament agreed to increase the prince's allowance if he married a suitable princess.

From the beginning, there was no love lost between the couple. Caroline was said to be short, fat, ugly and she had poor personal hygiene, all of which disgusted George. He immediately asked for a drink after meeting her and was drunk during their wedding, passing out under the bedroom grate during the wedding night.

Regardless of his disgust at his new bride, Caroline managed to become pregnant that night and the couple never slept together again. In January 1796, she gave birth to their daughter Princess Charlotte of Wales, who was second in line to the throne after her father. George did nothing to hide his distaste for Caroline, which only helped to propel her own popularity among the public.

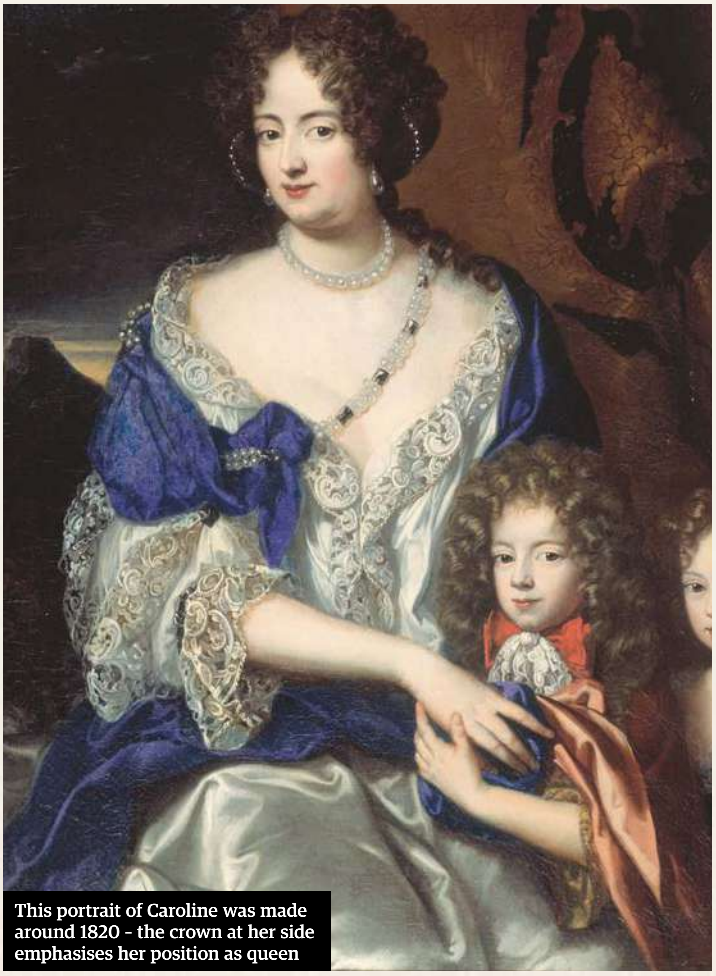
The couple were soon living apart and Caroline moved to Blackheath in London, where she decided to start behaving as she wished, although she took care to visit her daughter frequently. However, it was not long before whispers circulated about her indecent behaviour and rumours surfaced alleging she had taken lovers.

With George III's madness and the prince's appointment as regent in 1811, Caroline became further isolated from society. George placed more restrictions on her ability to see their daughter and left frustrated at her circumstances, she agreed to leave Britain in 1814, in exchange for an allowance.

Moving to Italy, Caroline did nothing to tone down her behaviour and she supposedly took one of her servants as a lover. In 1817, Caroline was dealt a heart-breaking blow when she discovered that her daughter had died while giving birth and George had refused to write to inform her, leaving her to discover the tragic news from a passing courier.

When George ascended the British throne in 1820, Caroline returned to Britain as queen despite the king's determination to divorce her, however the people welcomed her warmly as they sympathised with her over George's treatment and behaviour. Caroline attempted to attend the coronation ceremony in 1821 but was barred entry, with the doors of Westminster Abbey being slammed in her face.

Her undignified behaviour at the coronation turned many people against her and she soon fell seriously ill. She died three weeks after the coronation and was buried at Brunswick Cathedral, with "Here lies Caroline, the Injured Queen of England" inscribed on her tomb.



This portrait of Caroline was made around 1820 - the crown at her side emphasises her position as queen

Defining moments

A loveless letter

A year after their marriage and just three months after the birth of Princess Charlotte, George wrote Caroline a letter informing her that he did not want to live with her and would not have 'relations' with her again, marking the start of their estrangement.

Scandalous accusations

Following claims made by her neighbour, Lady Douglas, a secret royal commission was set up to uncover whether Caroline's adopted son, William Austin, was actually her own illegitimate child. The incident became known as the 'Delicate investigation' and although no evidence was found, Caroline's access to Charlotte was restricted again.

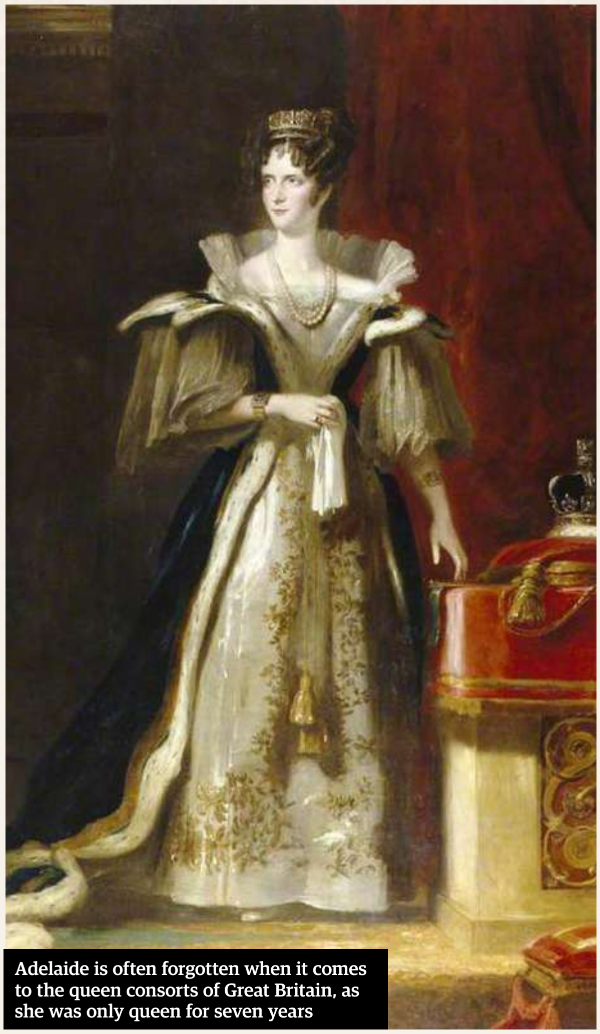
A failed divorce

Hoping to finally end his detested marriage to Caroline, King George IV had the Pains and Penalties Bill introduced to parliament. If passed, it would have declared that Caroline committed adultery and would give the king grounds for divorce – but public backlash led to it being withdrawn.

Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen

Husband *William IV*

The last of the Georgian queen consorts, Adelaide endeared herself to the British people through her piety, dignity and kindness


Adelaide is often forgotten when it comes to the queen consorts of Great Britain, as she was only queen for seven years

The death of Princess Charlotte of Wales sparked panic in the House of Hanover. King George III's mind had dissolved into madness while the prince regent had no other legitimate children, and it was unlikely that he would produce any more with estranged wife Caroline. The rest of George's sons entered a mad race to marry and produce an heir to secure the line of succession as quickly as possible.

One of them was Prince William, Duke of Clarence, who already had ten illegitimate children with his former mistress of 20 years, Dorothea Jordan. At 52 years old, William was 27 years older than his chosen bride-to-be, Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen. The couple married in 1818 in a joint ceremony with William's brother, Prince Edward, Duke of Kent and his bride, Victoria, Dowager Princess of Leiningen.

It was said that Adelaide had a calming influence on her husband and the pair enjoyed a happy marriage, but they failed to produce a living heir for the throne, despite numerous pregnancies. However, Edward and Victoria succeeded and their daughter, Princess Victoria of Kent, would eventually be named as William's heir once he ascended the throne in 1830.

Adelaide devoted much of her time to worthy philanthropic causes as queen and presided a virtuous court, a stark contrast to the reign of her brother-in-law, King George IV. Adelaide attempted to include a young Princess Victoria in her household and treat her with kindness, despite the attempts of Victoria's mother to keep the princess away and her refusal to acknowledge Adelaide's position as the queen.

Tensions reached boiling point when William publicly announced his intention to live until Princess Victoria reached her age of majority, thereby preventing her mother from ever succeeding to the regency. Both the king and queen fell seriously ill in 1837 but while Adelaide recovered, William died of heart failure that June – just one month after Princess Victoria's birthday.

Adelaide had stayed by her husband's bedside for over ten days and with his death, she became the first dowager queen for over a century. Queen Victoria maintained a fond relationship with her aunt and the dowager queen was named as a godmother to Victoria's first-born child, Princess Victoria, in 1840. In another nod to her beloved aunt, the queen also chose 'Adelaide' as one of her daughter's names.

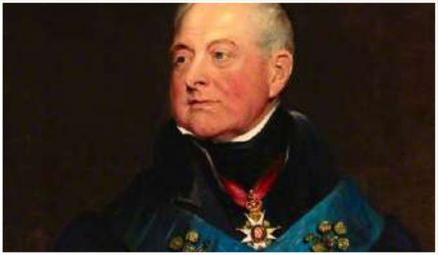
Frequently unwell in later life, Adelaide took to travelling a lot in an attempt to find a better climate, but she eventually died in 1849 from natural causes. In her will she remained humble to the end, expressing her wish for a private and quiet funeral and for her remains to be "conveyed to the grave without pomp or state."

> "Adelaide devoted much time to causes"

Defining moments

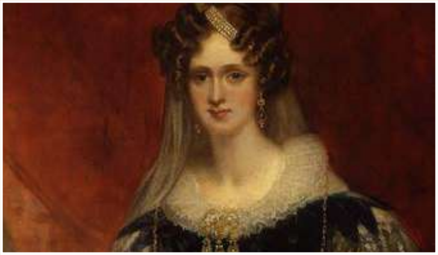
The first meeting

Adelaide met her husband-to-be, William, for the first time just a week before their wedding. She had not been his first choice of bride, but Adelaide had stated that she was willing to accept his children with Dorothea Jordan.



The coronation ceremony

Adelaide was highly praised for her dignified and elegant performance during her coronation ceremony with William at Westminster Abbey in 1831, which she took very seriously and solidified her reputation as a pious queen.



Tragedy strikes

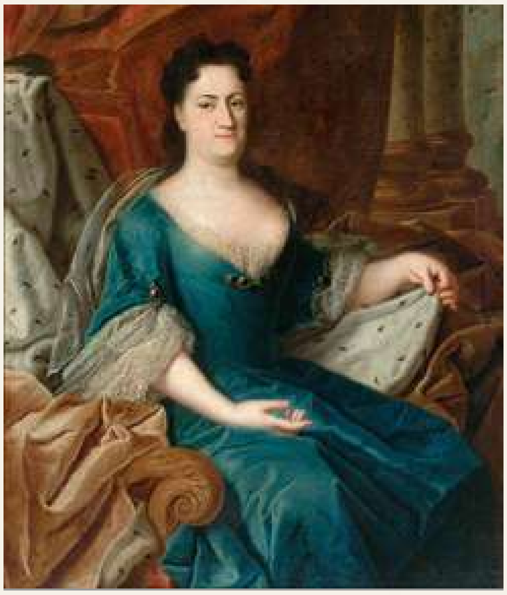
After contracting pleurisy, Adelaide gave birth to her daughter, Charlotte, prematurely. Charlotte only survived a few hours. Adelaide's other pregnancies ended with at least another miscarriage, the stillbirth of twin boys and the death of another daughter.

The lovers of the Georgian kings

The queens were not the only ones who could wield influence over their kings during the Georgian era

Melusine von der Schulenburg, Duchess of Kendal

Lover *George I*



Melusine was introduced to George while she was maid of honour to his mother, Electress Sophia of Hanover. They soon began an affair which resulted in the birth of three daughters between 1692 and 1701. Melusine remained with George after he became king and she moved with him to England, where he bestowed on her a number of titles over the next few years, including the duchess of Kendal.

In Britain, Melusine was given the nickname 'the Maypole' because she was a tall and thin woman. She was politically influential over the king and gained money through selling public offices and titles. Melusine's status rose further when she was created princess of Eberstein by Charles VI, Holy Roman Emperor in 1723.

Essentially a queen consort in all but name, rumours circulated that Melusine had married the king in secret. Although possible, any marriage between the two would have been deemed illegal while George's first wife, Sophia Dorothea, remained alive, despite the fact their marriage had been dissolved. However, Sophia Dorothea's death in 1726 removed this obstacle and the couple may have wed, though this has never been confirmed. After George's death in 1727, Melusine stayed in Britain, where she died 16 years later in 1743.

Henrietta Howard, Countess of Suffolk

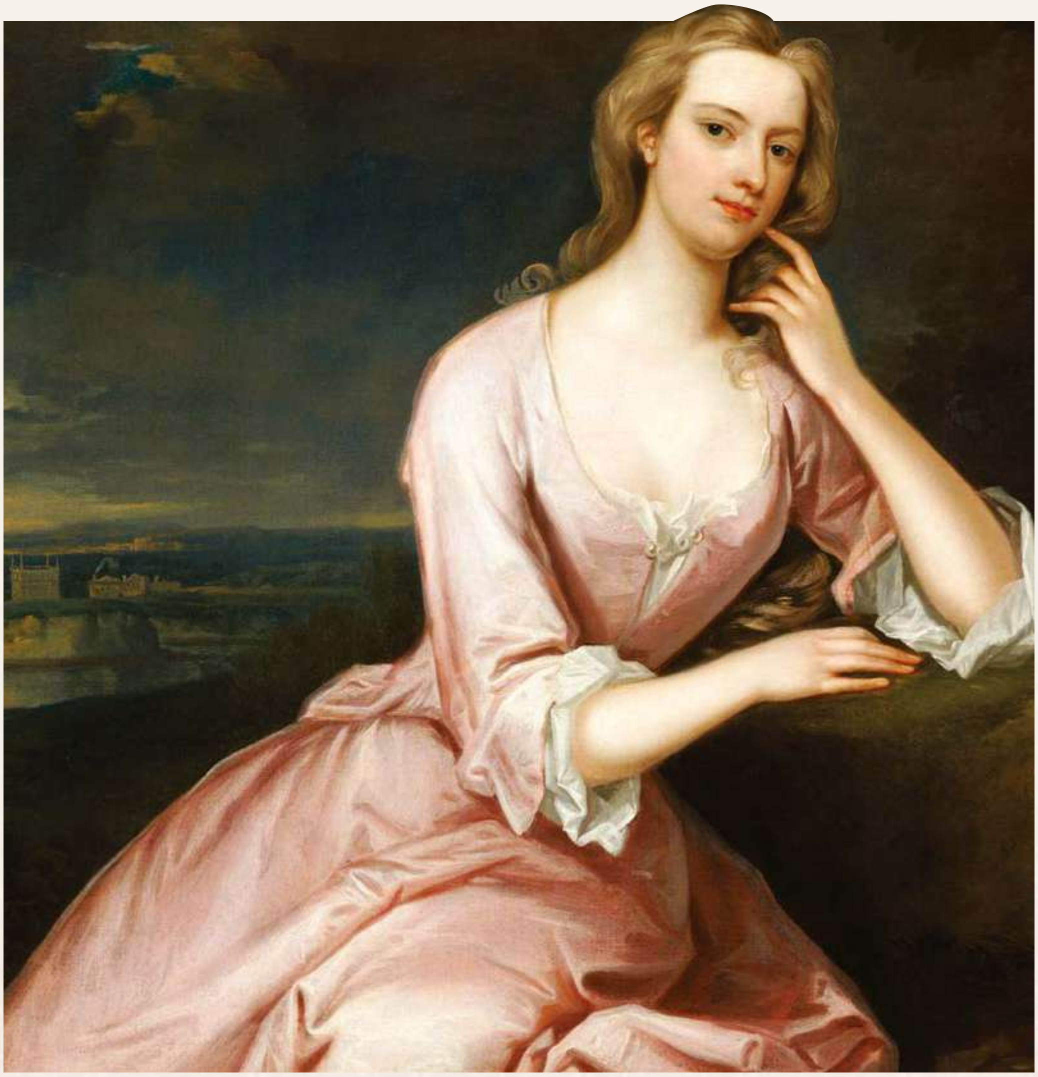
Lover *George II*

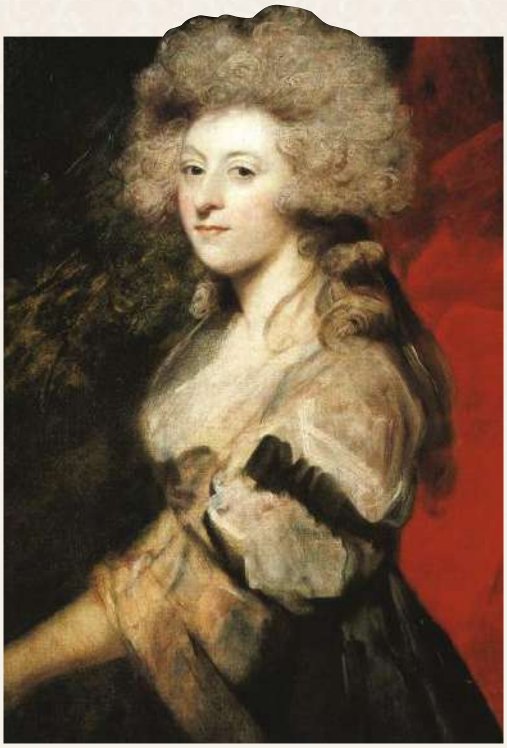
When Henrietta Howard first met Prince George Augustus of Hanover, she was trapped in an abusive and lonely marriage to the 9th earl of Suffolk, who spent his time gambling and drinking their money away. The couple travelled to the Hanoverian court in 1714, in order to gain favour with the house that would soon rule Great Britain.

Their plan was even more successful than Henrietta could have hoped, as she was appointed as lady of the bedchamber to the prince's wife, Princess Caroline of Ansbach, upon King George I's ascension to the throne. However, it was not long before Henrietta had also become the prince's lover, assuming the role of his royal mistress.

It was no secret that the prince adored his wife, but he was expected to keep mistresses and Caroline knew about all of them. Henrietta was an intelligent woman and she got on with Caroline, despite their respective relationships with George. After the death of his father in 1727, the prince succeeded as King George II and Henrietta remained his mistress.

That same year, Henrietta separated from her husband but they did not seek a divorce, with the earl dying in 1733. After two decades, Henrietta ceased to be George's mistress and she remarried George Berkeley, a politician, in 1735. The couple had a happy marriage until Berkeley's death in 1746, with Henrietta passing away 21 years later.





Maria Fitzherbert

Lover *George IV*

By the time Maria met George, Prince of Wales, in 1784, she had already been widowed twice. When they were introduced, the prince immediately fell for Maria and he pursued her relentlessly. However, Maria was a devout Catholic and she was not willing to become his mistress, so the prince proposed to her and they married in December 1785.

The marriage was considered illegal and invalid, as George had not received permission from his father, King George III, or the Privy Council. To make matters more complicated, the Act of Settlement of 1701 had clearly outlined that no Roman Catholic, or anyone married to one, could succeed to the British throne. If George and Maria's marriage had been considered legal, he would have been automatically disinherited.

The couple's relationship ended in 1794 when the prince married Princess Caroline of Brunswick to pay off debts. Maria was told by letter but George had not forgotten her – they would reconcile and separate numerous times until his death in 1830. His final request was to be buried with a miniature of Maria around his neck, which was carried out.

> "She was not willing to become his mistress, so the prince proposed"

Dorothea Jordan

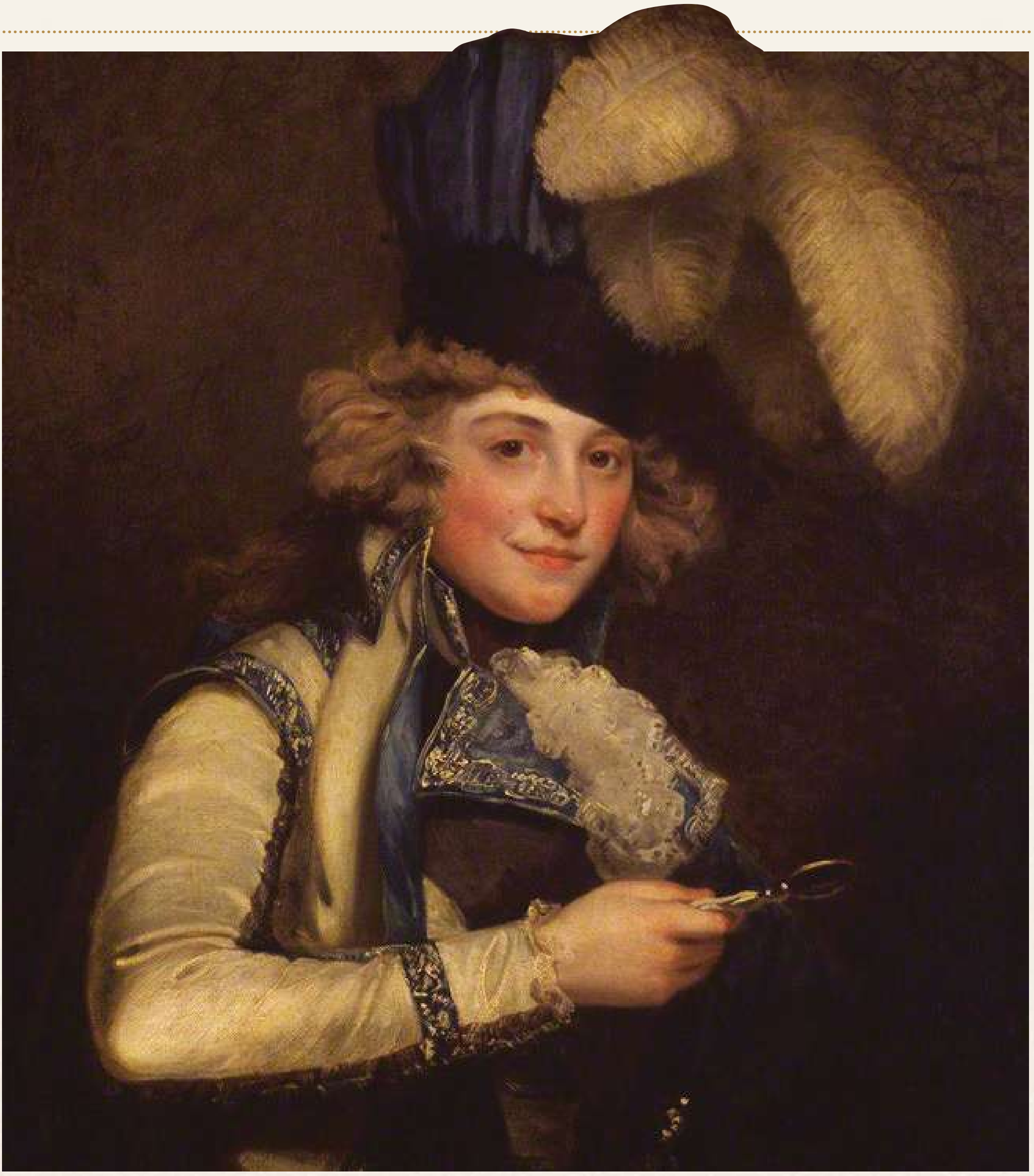
Lover *William IV*

Beautiful and intelligent, the actress and courtesan Dorothea Jordan caught the eye of King William IV while he was still the duke of Clarence. Their relationship began in 1791 and together they went on to have ten children, five sons and five daughters, who were given the surname FitzClarence.

Like his brothers, William was required to ask his father, King George III, and the Privy Council for permission to marry thanks to the Royal Marriages Act of 1772. However, as a younger son he was not concerned with marriage or producing legitimate children, and so he chose to just live with Dorothea, passing the next two decades in uneventful domestic bliss. This arrangement suited Dorothea, who had no interest in the royal court, politics or influence.

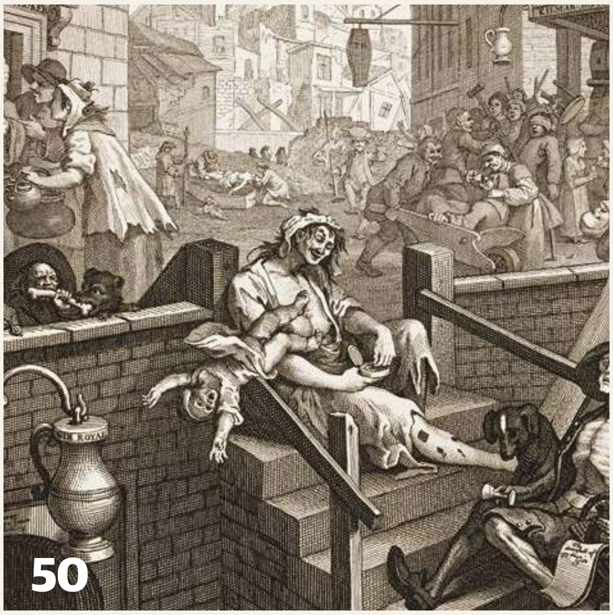
Their relationship came to an end in 1811 after the duke set his sights on a wealthy young heiress, perhaps under pressure to find a suitable wife. Dorothea was given custody of their daughters while William retained custody over their sons, and she received an annual stipend on the condition she did not return to the stage.

Dorothea was left heartbroken by the end of the relationship and her situation became more difficult after one of her son-in-laws ran up debts using her name. Left with no other choice but to return to acting to pay off her creditors, Dorothea's daughters were taken from her after William found out and he revoked a large chunk of her stipend. With her debts mounting, Dorothea fled to France in 1815, where she died impoverished a year later



© Getty images, Alamy, Numisantica (wiki.coins)

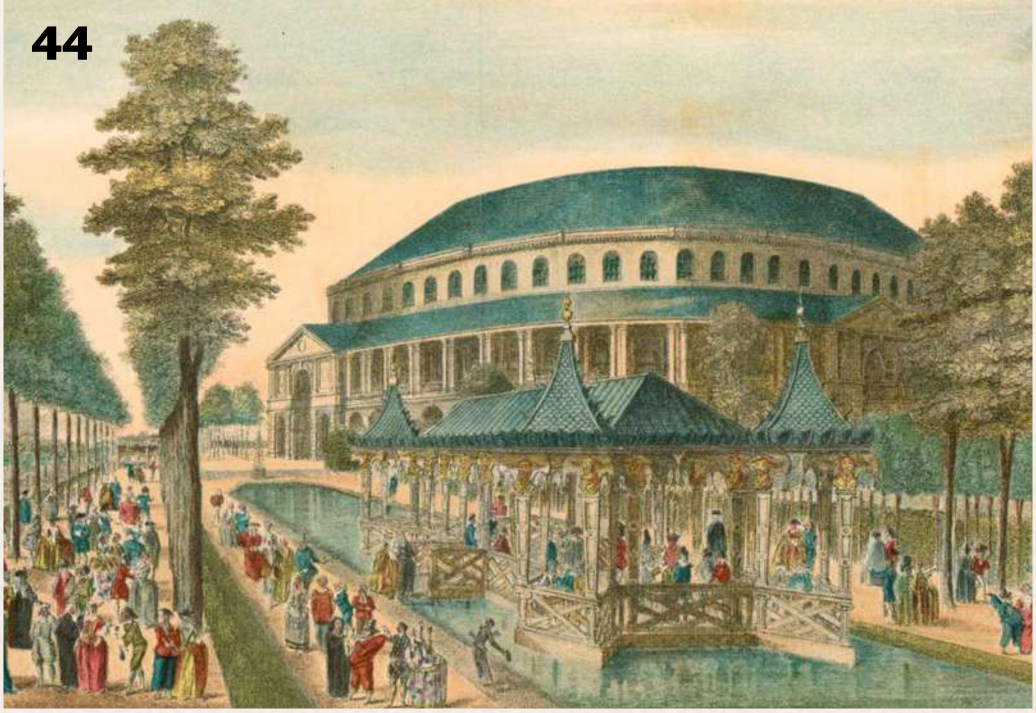
SOCIETY & CULTURE


50

64

86

58


44

30 Progress and change
The key events of the Georgian Era

36 The Industrial Revolution
A new technological age dawned with the Industrial Revolution

40 Robert Walpole, Prime Minister
Walpole is considered to be the nation's first prime minister

44 Class and entertainment
Georgian Britain was a world of contrasts, especially between classes

50 The Gin Craze
How a wave of drunkenness swept over the people of London

52 No holds barred
The truth behind Britain's underground fight club

58 Building the Georgian Era
Discover a golden age of architecture

64 Royal scandal at Kew Gardens
The history of Kew is entwined with Britain's monarchs

74 Jane Austen
Uncover the life and work of this iconic and witty author

78 The year without summer
A monster is born when four exiles begin telling spooky stories

82 Heroes of literature
The library legends who endure to this day

86 10 artists that shaped the Georgian Era
How Britain became a hub of creativity

90 The march of knowledge
Knowledge and technology moved at a relentless pace

92 The war on slavery
How freedom was finally won

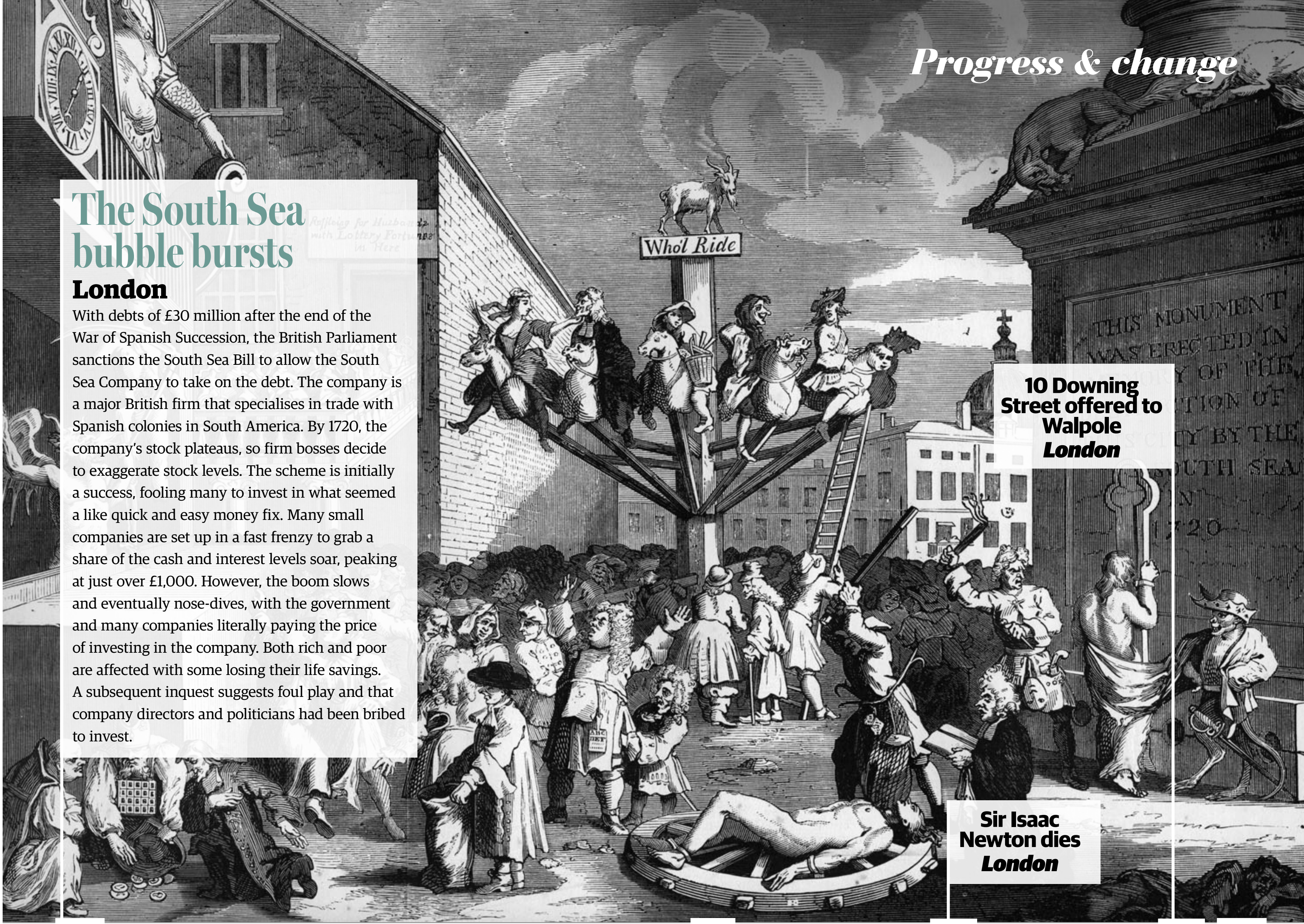
94 Australia's first penal colony
How backbreaking labour forged the modern-day land down under

PROGRESS & CHANGE

The key events in an era of transition and evolution including the first prime minister, a ground-breaking vaccine and a literary masterpiece

1719

Robinson Crusoe published
London


Raffleing for Husbands with Lottery Fortunes in Here
Who'l Ride
THIS MONUMENT WAS ERECTED IN MEMORY OF THE DESTRUCTION OF THIS CITY BY THE SOUTH SEA IN 1720

The South Sea bubble bursts

London

With debts of £30 million after the end of the War of Spanish Succession, the British Parliament sanctions the South Sea Bill to allow the South Sea Company to take on the debt. The company is a major British firm that specialises in trade with Spanish colonies in South America. By 1720, the company's stock plateaus, so firm bosses decide to exaggerate stock levels. The scheme is initially a success, fooling many to invest in what seemed a like quick and easy money fix. Many small companies are set up in a fast frenzy to grab a share of the cash and interest levels soar, peaking at just over £1,000. However, the boom slows and eventually nose-dives, with the government and many companies literally paying the price of investing in the company. Both rich and poor are affected with some losing their life savings. A subsequent inquest suggests foul play and that company directors and politicians had been bribed to invest.

10 Downing Street offered to Walpole
London

Sir Isaac Newton dies
London

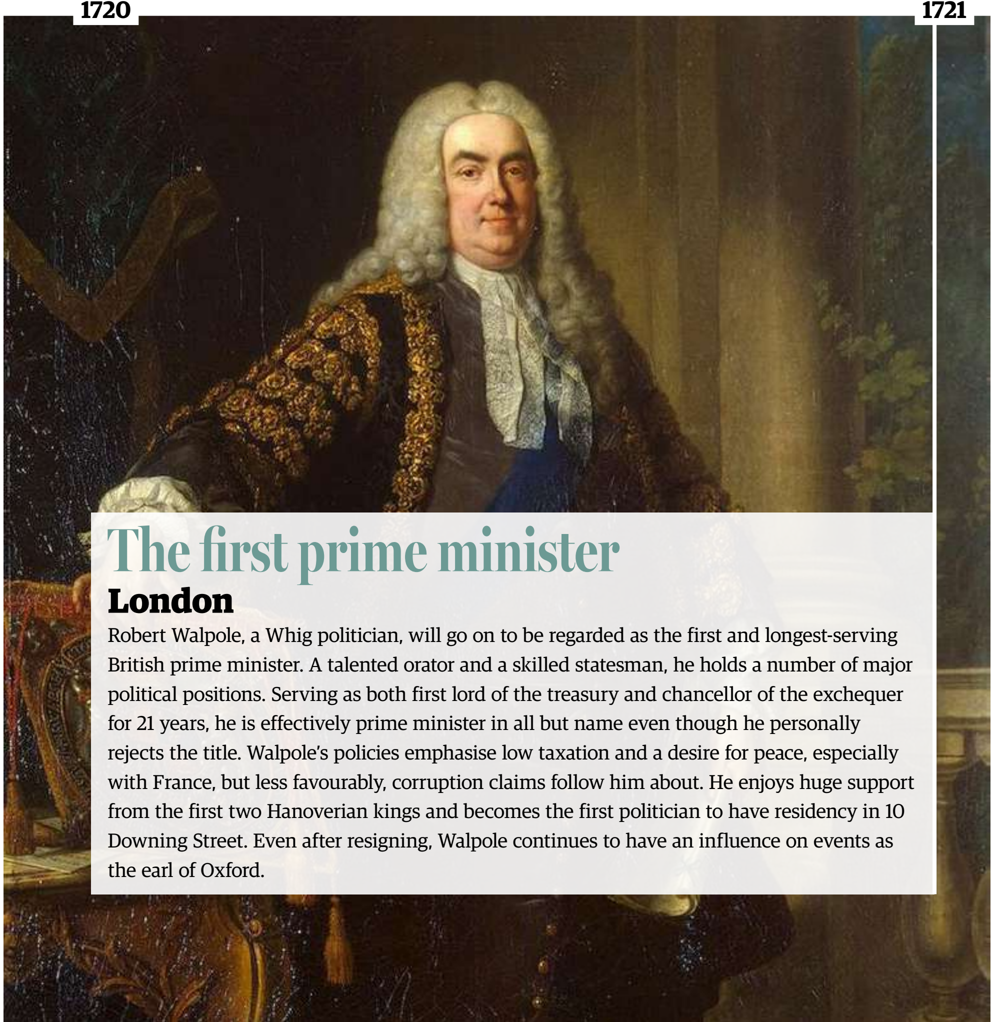
1720

1721

1727

1732

1740



The first prime minister

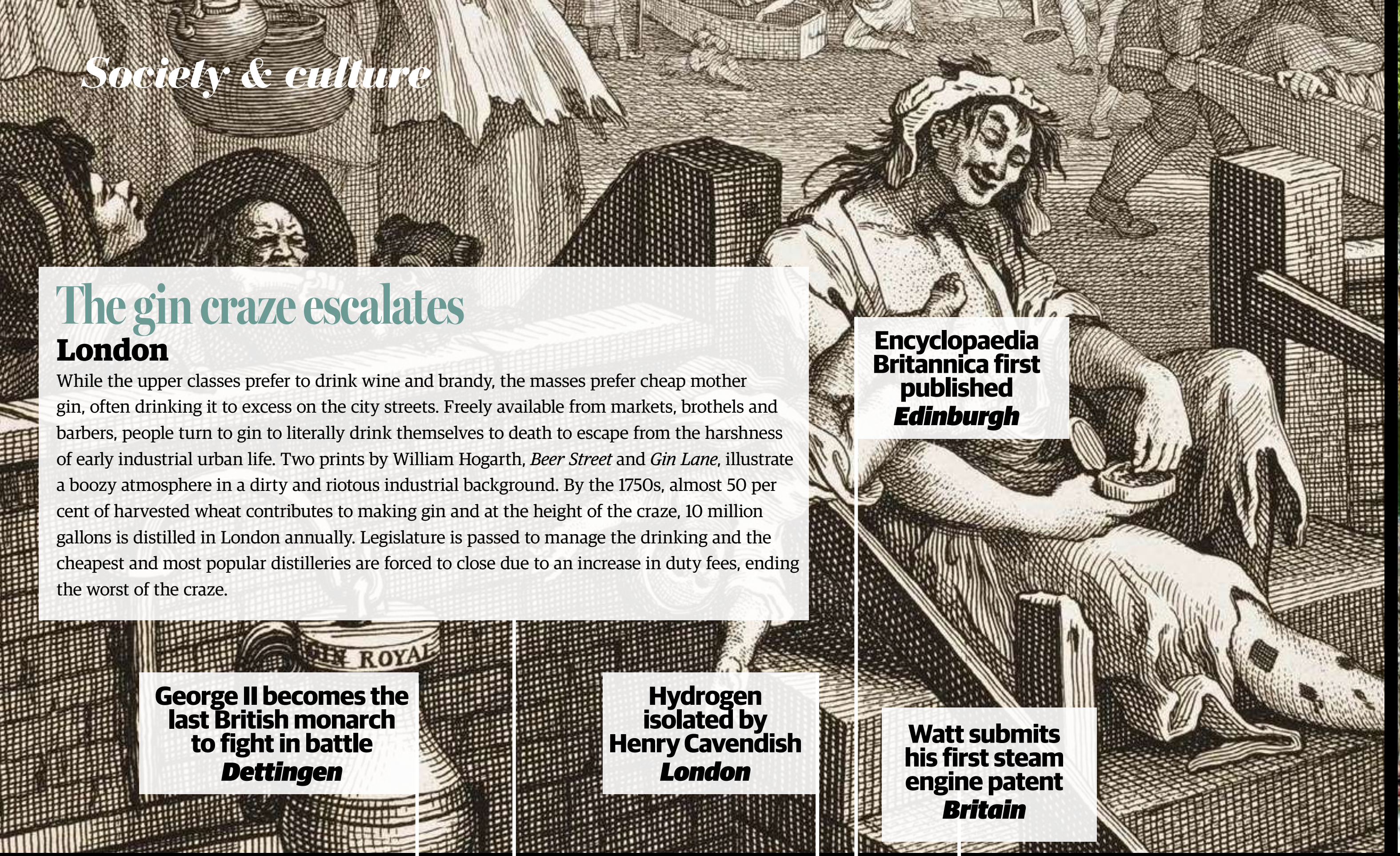
London

Robert Walpole, a Whig politician, will go on to be regarded as the first and longest-serving British prime minister. A talented orator and a skilled statesman, he holds a number of major political positions. Serving as both first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer for 21 years, he is effectively prime minister in all but name even though he personally rejects the title. Walpole's policies emphasise low taxation and a desire for peace, especially with France, but less favourably, corruption claims follow him about. He enjoys huge support from the first two Hanoverian kings and becomes the first politician to have residency in 10 Downing Street. Even after resigning, Walpole continues to have an influence on events as the earl of Oxford.

Rule Britannia written

Maidenhead

The popular refrain 'Rule Britannia, Britannia rules the waves' is performed as a musical piece. The poem *Alfred*, written by Scottish playwrights James Thomson and David Mallet, includes the line and is composed by Thomas Arne. It quickly becomes popular with the public who take it as a proud declaration of national identity. The phrase 'Rule Britannia' goes on to remain a patriotic or even nationalistic anthem to some, and is played at the annual Last Night of the Proms at the Royal Albert Hall.



The gin craze escalates

London

While the upper classes prefer to drink wine and brandy, the masses prefer cheap mother gin, often drinking it to excess on the city streets. Freely available from markets, brothels and barbers, people turn to gin to literally drink themselves to death to escape from the harshness of early industrial urban life. Two prints by William Hogarth, *Beer Street* and *Gin Lane*, illustrate a boozy atmosphere in a dirty and riotous industrial background. By the 1750s, almost 50 per cent of harvested wheat contributes to making gin and at the height of the craze, 10 million gallons is distilled in London annually. Legislature is passed to manage the drinking and the cheapest and most popular distilleries are forced to close due to an increase in duty fees, ending the worst of the craze.

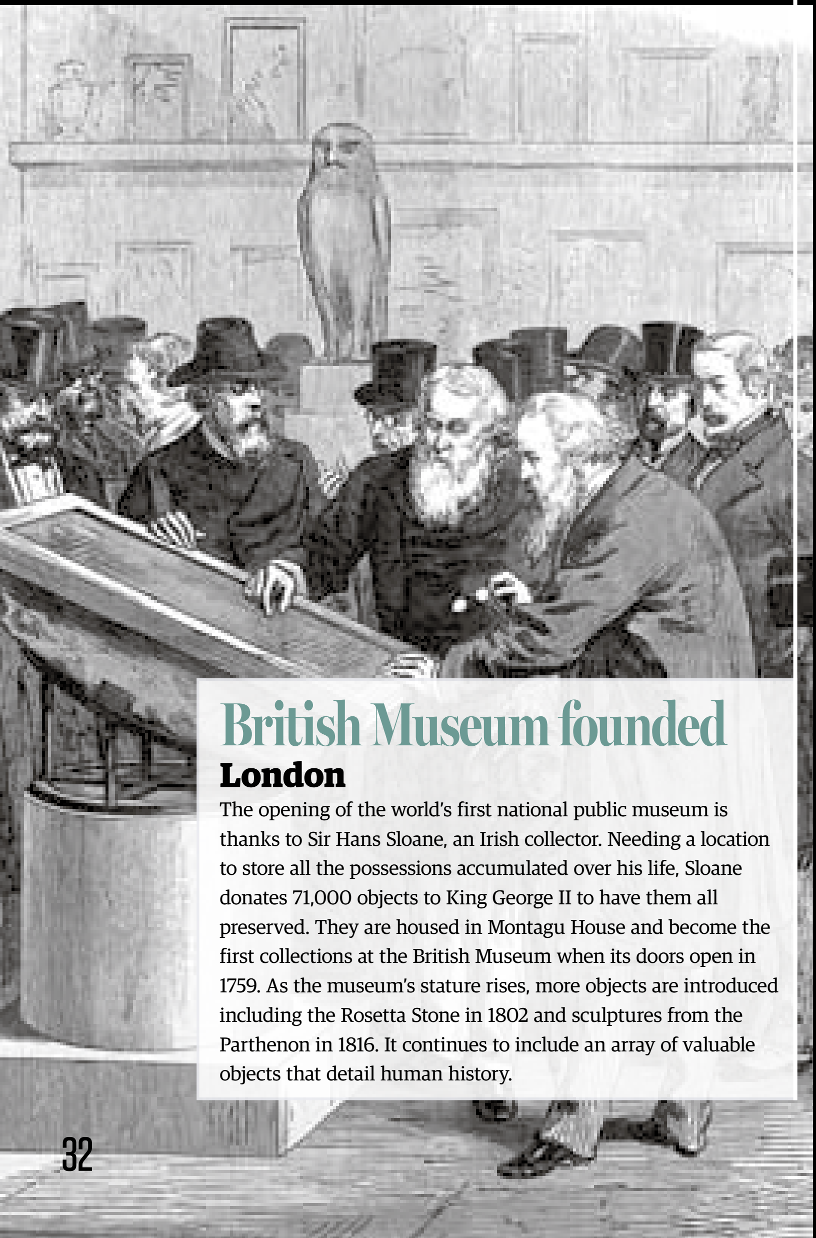
George II becomes the last British monarch to fight in battle
Dettingen

Hydrogen isolated by Henry Cavendish
London

Encyclopaedia Britannica first published
Edinburgh

Watt submits his first steam engine patent
Britain

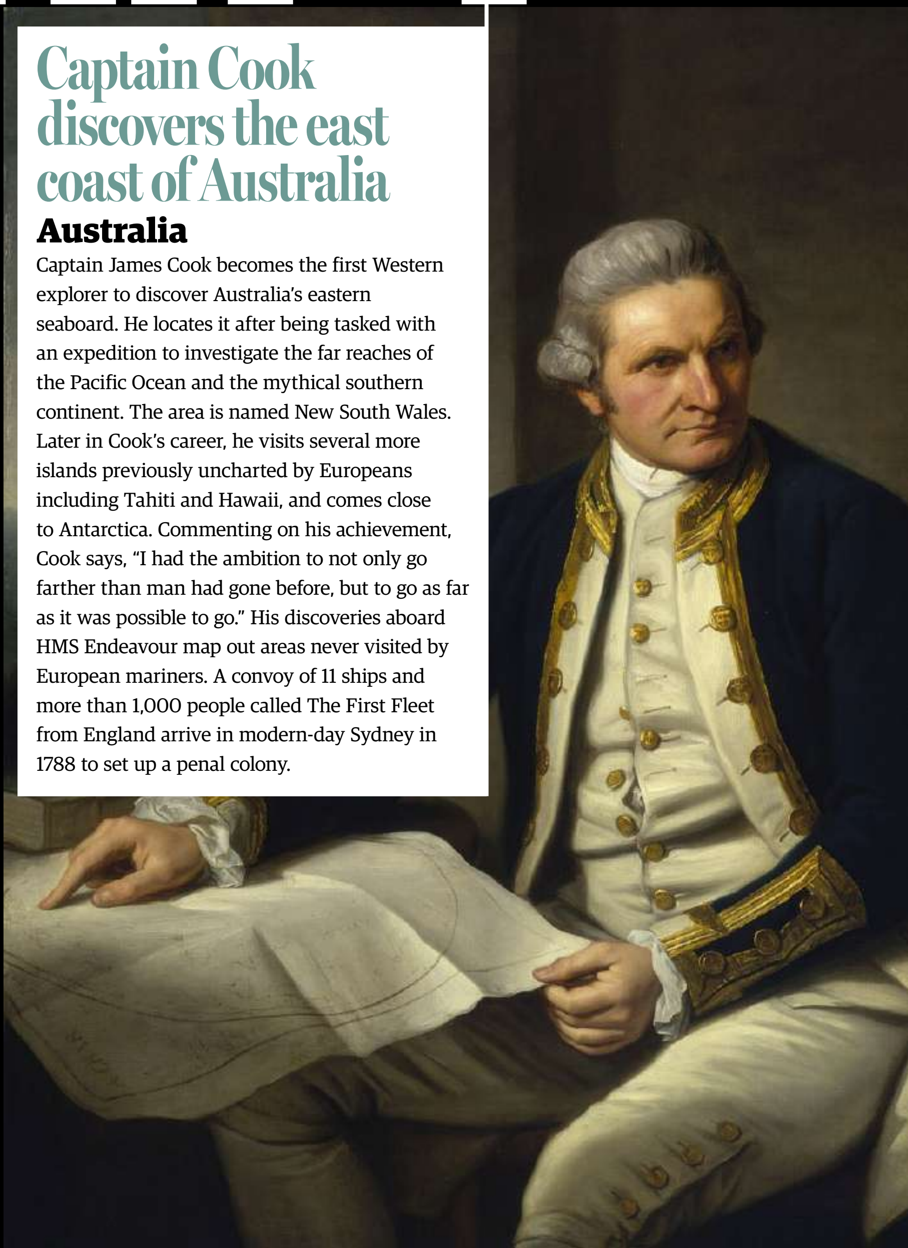
1743 1751 1753 1766 1768 1769 1770



British Museum founded

London

The opening of the world's first national public museum is thanks to Sir Hans Sloane, an Irish collector. Needing a location to store all the possessions accumulated over his life, Sloane donates 71,000 objects to King George II to have them all preserved. They are housed in Montagu House and become the first collections at the British Museum when its doors open in 1759. As the museum's stature rises, more objects are introduced including the Rosetta Stone in 1802 and sculptures from the Parthenon in 1816. It continues to include an array of valuable objects that detail human history.



Captain Cook discovers the east coast of Australia

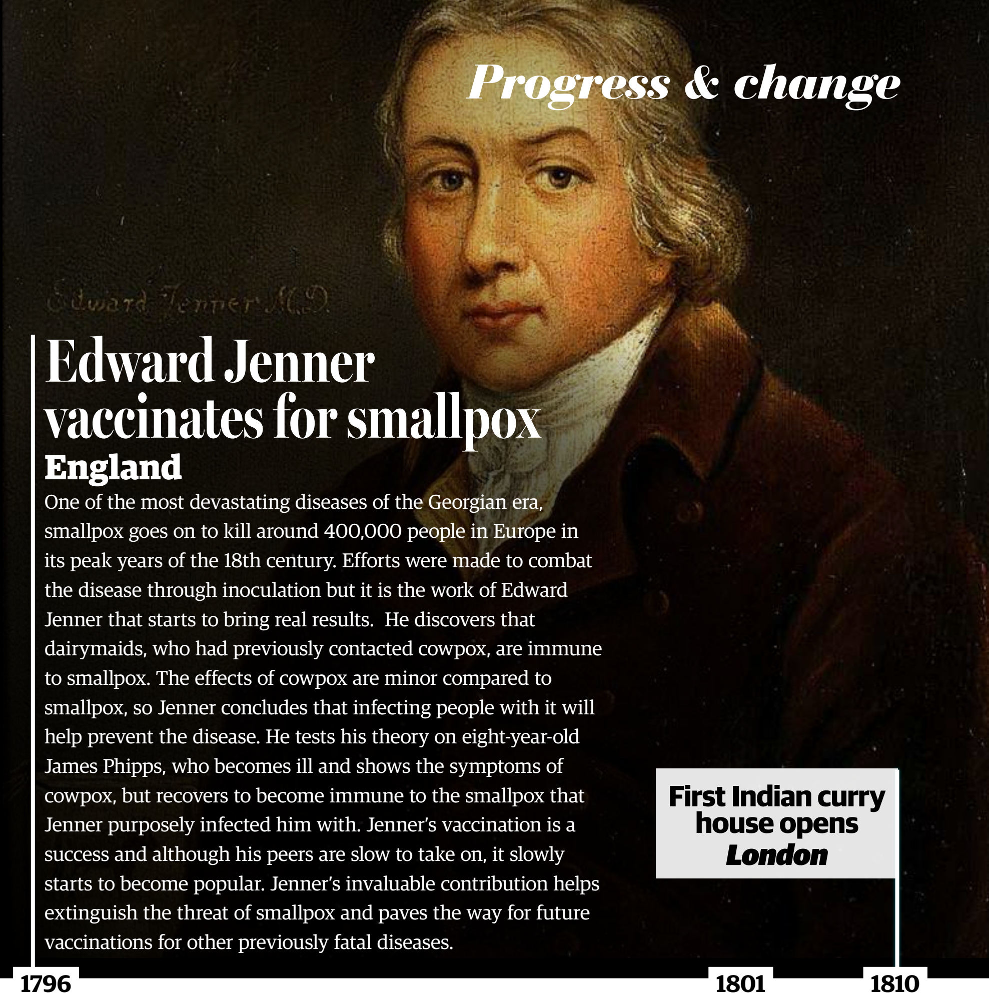
Australia

Captain James Cook becomes the first Western explorer to discover Australia's eastern seaboard. He locates it after being tasked with an expedition to investigate the far reaches of the Pacific Ocean and the mythical southern continent. The area is named New South Wales. Later in Cook's career, he visits several more islands previously uncharted by Europeans including Tahiti and Hawaii, and comes close to Antarctica. Commenting on his achievement, Cook says, "I had the ambition to not only go farther than man had gone before, but to go as far as it was possible to go." His discoveries aboard HMS Endeavour map out areas never visited by European mariners. A convoy of 11 ships and more than 1,000 people called The First Fleet from England arrive in modern-day Sydney in 1788 to set up a penal colony.

Cromford Mill opens

Matlock

Cromford Mill, a workhouse complex, includes the first industrial-sized water powered cotton spinning mill. It employs 200 workers who tend to the spinning mills in the workhouse to create cotton. Built during the Industrial Revolution in Britain, the women and children employed at the mill work long hours in dirty, dangerous and cramped conditions. The compound is constructed by Sir Richard Arkwright, a major figure in the Industrial Revolution, who devises several types of machinery and manufacturing methods. The site later contains a brewery and is also used to house cheese. It eventually becomes part of a UNESCO World Heritage Site.



Edward Jenner M.D.

Edward Jenner vaccinates for smallpox

England

One of the most devastating diseases of the Georgian era, smallpox goes on to kill around 400,000 people in Europe in its peak years of the 18th century. Efforts were made to combat the disease through inoculation but it is the work of Edward Jenner that starts to bring real results. He discovers that dairymaids, who had previously contacted cowpox, are immune to smallpox. The effects of cowpox are minor compared to smallpox, so Jenner concludes that infecting people with it will help prevent the disease. He tests his theory on eight-year-old James Phipps, who becomes ill and shows the symptoms of cowpox, but recovers to become immune to the smallpox that Jenner purposely infected him with. Jenner's vaccination is a success and although his peers are slow to take on, it slowly starts to become popular. Jenner's invaluable contribution helps extinguish the threat of smallpox and paves the way for future vaccinations for other previously fatal diseases.

First Indian curry house opens
London

1771

1781

1785

1792

1796

1801

1810

Iron Bridge constructed
Shropshire

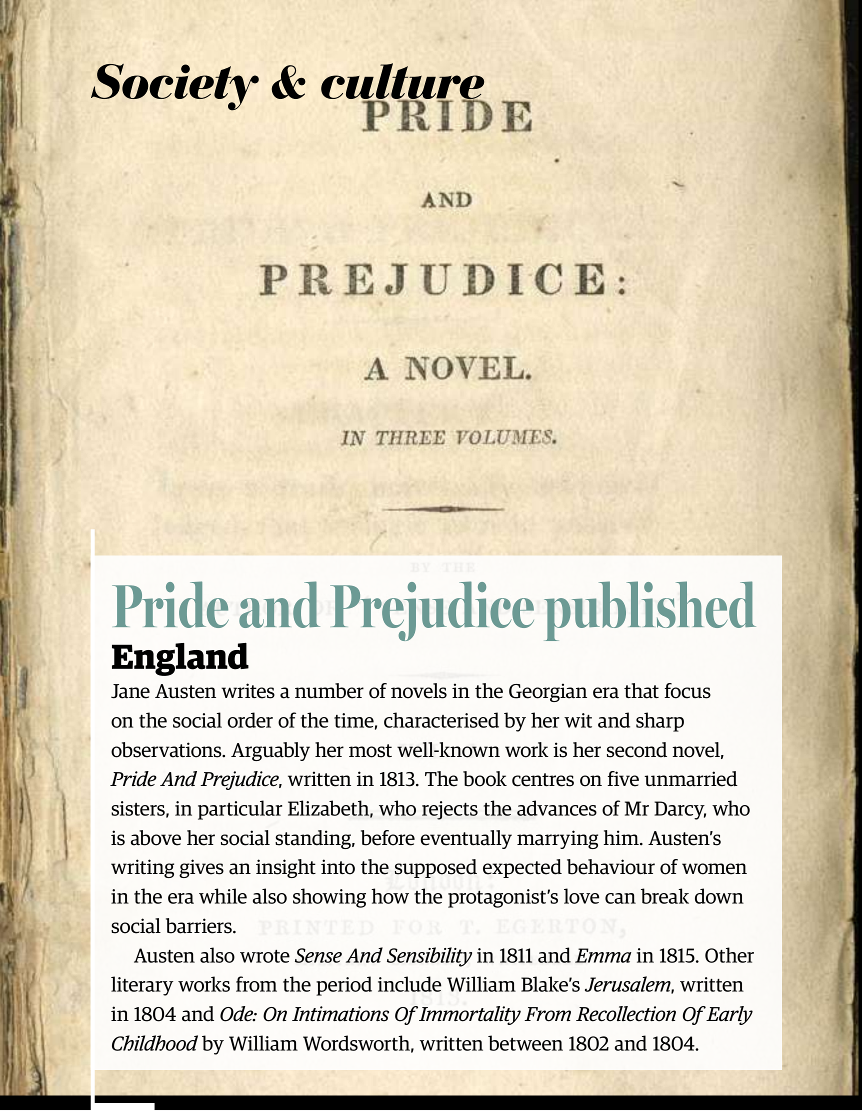
First issue of *The Times* published
London

Coal gas first used for lighting
Cornwall

The birth of the United Kingdom

London

Great Britain and Ireland is officially brought under one banner on 1 January 1801. After suppressing the Irish Rebellion of 1798, the House of Commons agreed to attempt a union with Ireland. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is intended to suppress future uprisings and to help develop the Irish economy while also bringing Irish politics closer into Westminster's sphere of influence. The Irish are persuaded to join by financial incentives and peerages but the union is not popular with the catholic population of Ireland and religious unrest remains until the late 20th century.



PRIDE

AND

PREJUDICE:

A NOVEL.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

Pride and Prejudice published

England

Jane Austen writes a number of novels in the Georgian era that focus on the social order of the time, characterised by her wit and sharp observations. Arguably her most well-known work is her second novel, *Pride And Prejudice*, written in 1813. The book centres on five unmarried sisters, in particular Elizabeth, who rejects the advances of Mr Darcy, who is above her social standing, before eventually marrying him. Austen's writing gives an insight into the supposed expected behaviour of women in the era while also showing how the protagonist's love can break down social barriers.

Austen also wrote *Sense And Sensibility* in 1811 and *Emma* in 1815. Other literary works from the period include William Blake's *Jerusalem*, written in 1804 and *Ode: On Intimations Of Immortality From Recollection Of Early Childhood* by William Wordsworth, written between 1802 and 1804.

Met Police formed
London

Catholics allowed into parliament for the first time

Ireland

The long-term effects of the Reformation has meant Catholics are not authorised to hold a position in public office in Britain. The Emancipation Act or Roman Catholic Relief Act of 1829 overturns this, allowing Catholics into a number of public offices, including UK Parliament. The instigator of the emancipation is Dubliner Daniel O'Connell, who believes an increased Irish catholic presence in public offices can hasten the introduction of home rule for Ireland. Catholic emancipation in Britain is extended further with the permission to attend university in 1871.

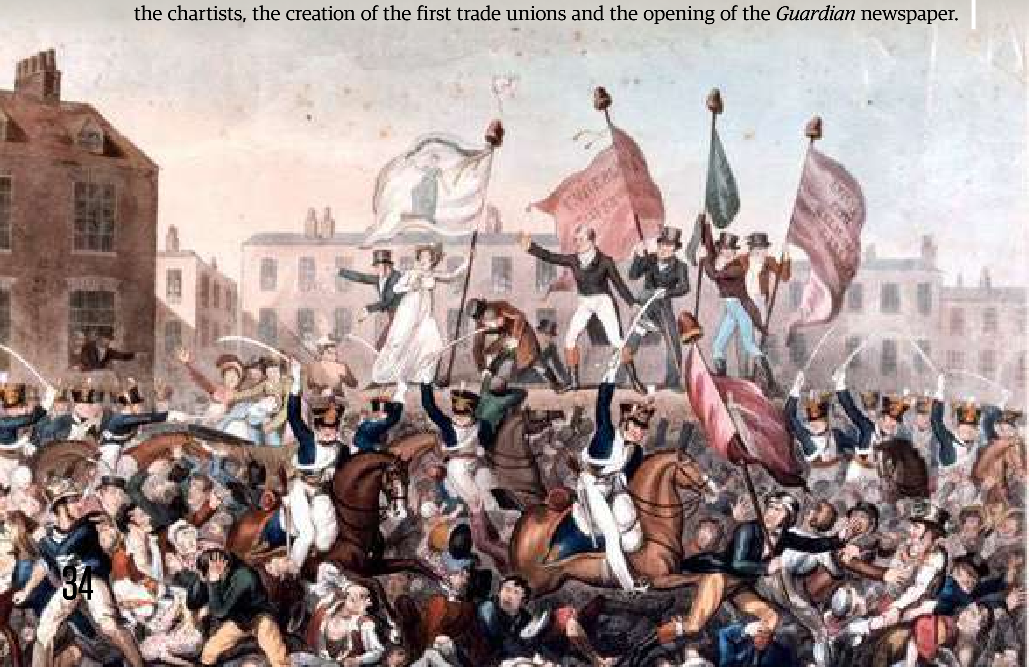
1813 1819 1822 1825 1826 1829

Peterloo Massacre

Manchester

In the early 1800s, groups of labourers started to become agitated at poor working conditions and a lack of representation in government. On 16 August 1819, more than 60,000 people assemble in Manchester city centre for a protest led by speaker Henry Hunt. The protest is peaceful and includes music, banners and dancing and people flock from the surrounding areas to attend. However, local officials are cautious of the event and instruct Hunt to be arrested. With no regard for the safety of the crowd, soldiers on horseback charge and attack the protestors. Up to 18 are killed and more than 500 are injured in what would become known as the Peterloo Massacre, a term coined to mock the Battle of Waterloo. The organisers are put on trial while the attackers are congratulated by the prince regent, William IV.

The Six Acts law passed in 1819 to reduce further discontent. There was public sympathy for the victims and the Peterloo Massacre was instrumental in the formation of working movements like the chartists, the creation of the first trade unions and the opening of the *Guardian* newspaper.



First iron steamship sets sail
English Channel

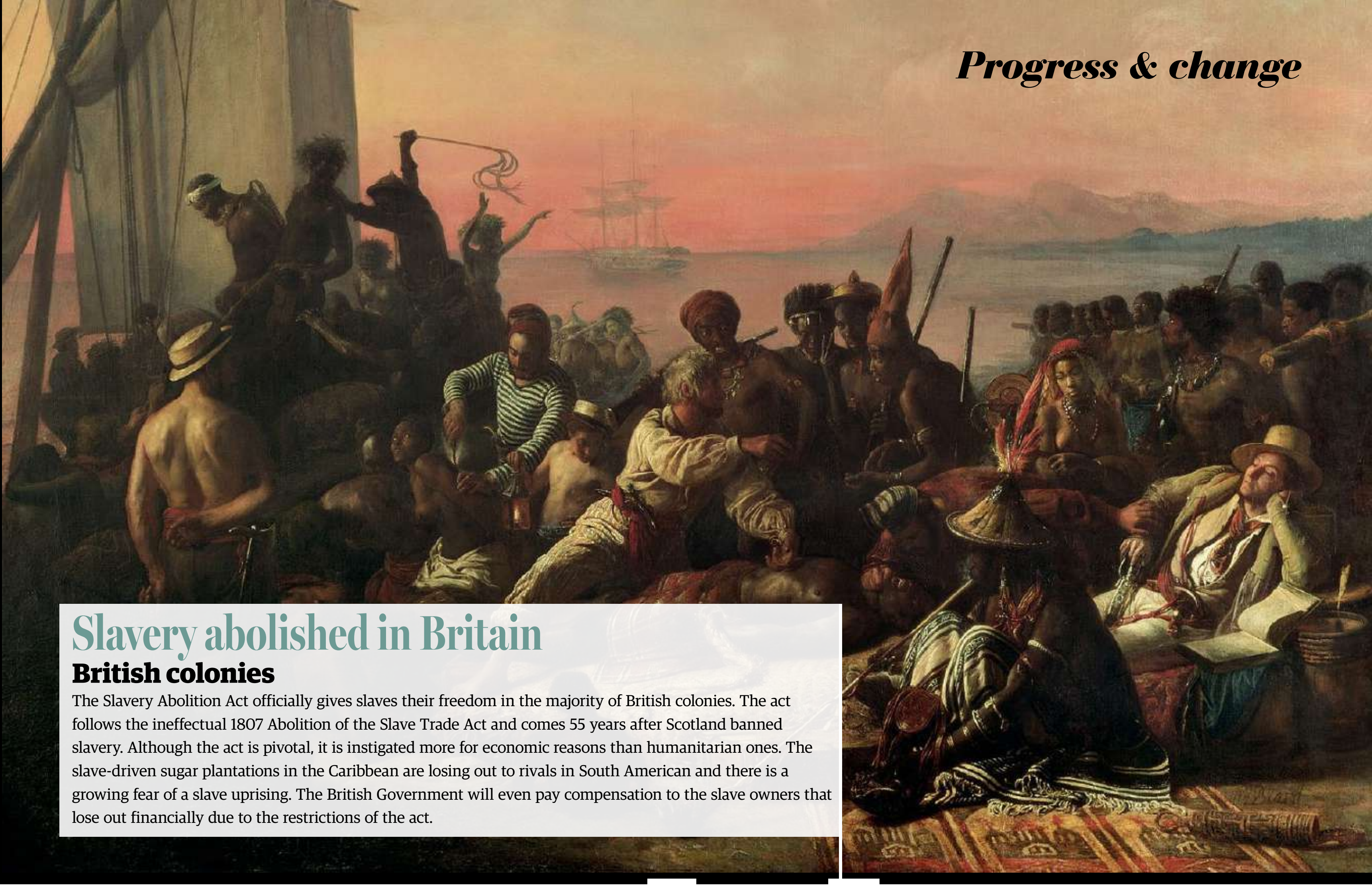
World's first passenger steam train opens
Darlington

University of London opens
London

Rosetta Stone deciphered

France

The Rosetta Stone is fundamental to the modern understanding of the languages used by the Ancient Egyptians. The script carved into the stone is a royal decree approving the crowning of Pharaoh Ptolemy V. It comprises three types of Ancient Egyptian language – hieroglyphics, which were used in important documents; demotic, which was common language; and Ancient Greek, which was used by the Greek rulers of Egypt at the time of the stone's creation. Ancient Egyptian was untranslatable at the time but French scholar Jean-François Champollion manages to decipher the Ancient Greek in 1822 so the Ancient Egyptian language can be transcribed. The hieroglyphics are translated and the language of Ancient Egypt is understood for the first time. Now all scholars who can read Ancient Greek can crack the ancient code.



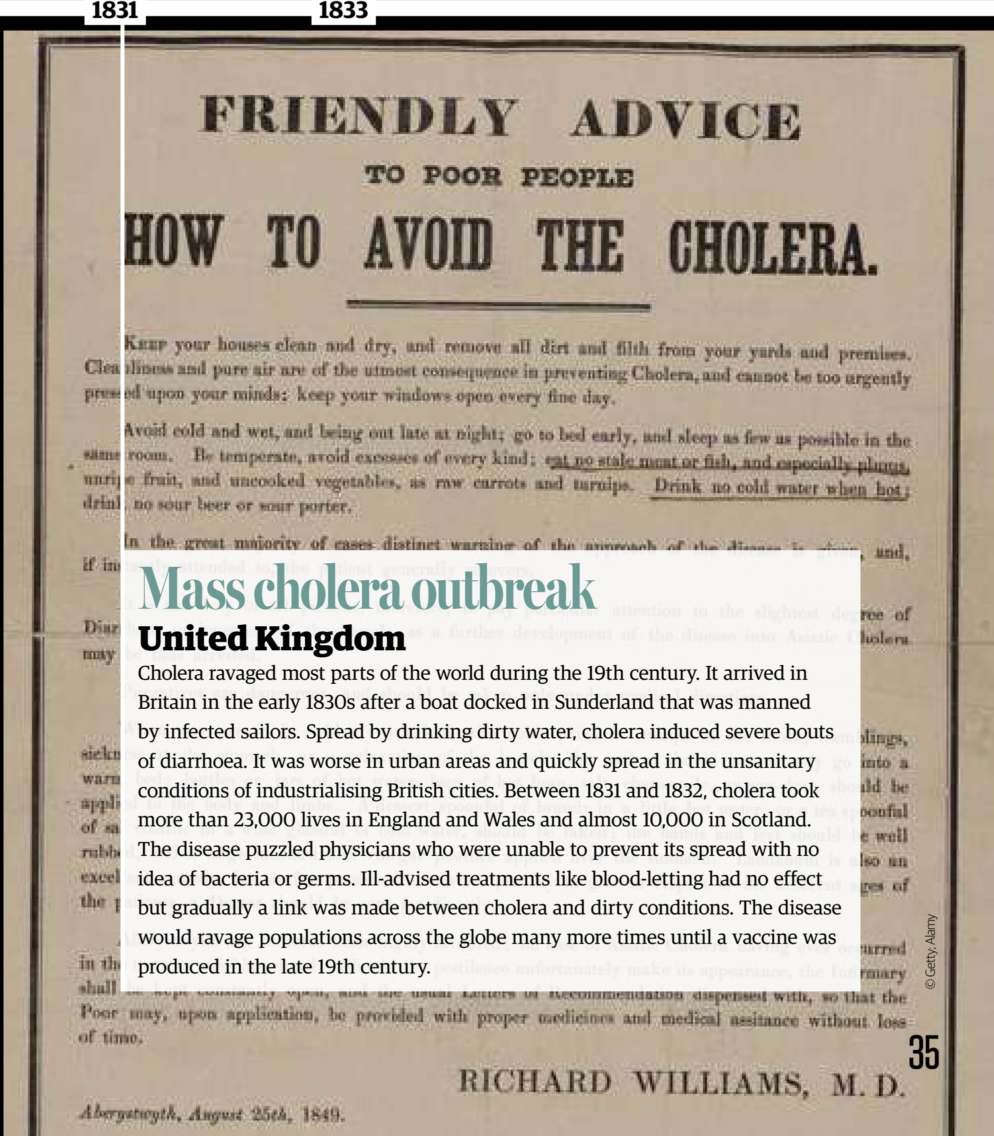
Slavery abolished in Britain

British colonies

The Slavery Abolition Act officially gives slaves their freedom in the majority of British colonies. The act follows the ineffectual 1807 Abolition of the Slave Trade Act and comes 55 years after Scotland banned slavery. Although the act is pivotal, it is instigated more for economic reasons than humanitarian ones. The slave-driven sugar plantations in the Caribbean are losing out to rivals in South American and there is a growing fear of a slave uprising. The British Government will even pay compensation to the slave owners that lose out financially due to the restrictions of the act.

1831

1833



FRIENDLY ADVICE

TO POOR PEOPLE

HOW TO AVOID THE CHOLERA.

Keep your houses clean and dry, and remove all dirt and filth from your yards and premises. Cleanliness and pure air are of the utmost consequence in preventing Cholera, and cannot be too urgently pressed upon your minds: keep your windows open every fine day.

Avoid cold and wet, and being out late at night; go to bed early, and sleep as few as possible in the same room. Be temperate, avoid excesses of every kind; eat no stale meat or fish, and especially plums, unripe fruit, and uncooked vegetables, as raw carrots and turnips. Drink no cold water when hot; drink no sour beer or sour porter.

In the great majority of cases distinct warning of the approach of the disease is given, and, if instantly attended to, the patient generally recovers.

shall be kept constantly open, and the usual Letters of Recommendation dispensed with, so that the Poor may, upon application, be provided with proper medicines and medical assitance without loss of time.

RICHARD WILLIAMS, M. D.

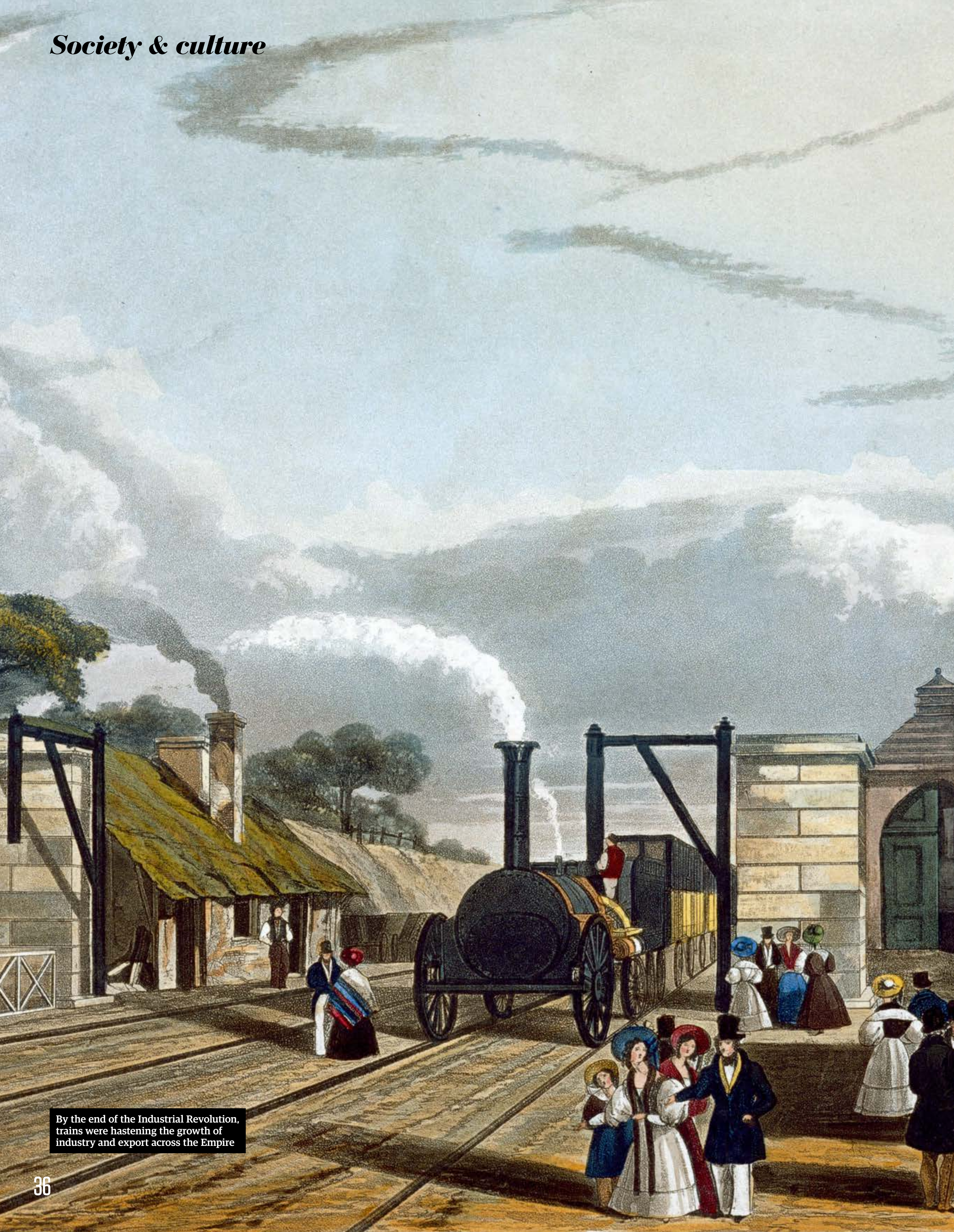
Aberystwyth, August 25th, 1849.

Mass cholera outbreak

United Kingdom

Cholera ravaged most parts of the world during the 19th century. It arrived in Britain in the early 1830s after a boat docked in Sunderland that was manned by infected sailors. Spread by drinking dirty water, cholera induced severe bouts of diarrhoea. It was worse in urban areas and quickly spread in the unsanitary conditions of industrialising British cities. Between 1831 and 1832, cholera took more than 23,000 lives in England and Wales and almost 10,000 in Scotland. The disease puzzled physicians who were unable to prevent its spread with no idea of bacteria or germs. Ill-advised treatments like blood-letting had no effect but gradually a link was made between cholera and dirty conditions. The disease would ravage populations across the globe many more times until a vaccine was produced in the late 19th century.

© Getty; Alamy



By the end of the Industrial Revolution, trains were hastening the growth of industry and export across the Empire

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

A new technological age dawned with the Industrial Revolution, bringing wealth for some and deprivation for others

Written by Catherine Curzon

Throughout the 18th century and into the 19th, the United Kingdom expanded at a rapid rate as the reach of the Empire spread around the globe. This unprecedented expansion meant that there was an increased demand for goods. In a world where the vast majority of manufacturing was still done by hand and rural and agricultural industries prevailed, large-scale heavy industry became vital to the continued supply and expansion of the kingdom.

At first technological growth was necessarily slow due to the natural limits imposed by the available technologies such as windmills or waterwheels, while transport across the country was confined to the horse on land or boats on water. The Industrial Revolution changed all that and it began with textiles, one of the country's most valuable manufacturing sectors. In this vital industry, once change began, it was swift indeed.

Textile production was one of the country's most important industries and it was a magnet for entrepreneurs and inventors, all of them keen to speed up the process and maximise profits. In the 18th century innovations such as James Hargreave's spinning jenny and Richard Arkwright's water frame, which completely removed the need for wool or linen in weaving, allowed work that had once taken a whole team to be done by a single machine. These innovations were combined by Samuel Crompton into the spinning mule, which produced a thread of then unparalleled strength and quality.

Each of these new developments took textile production one step further away from the cottage industry it had once been and as the industry developed, so too did the roles of the men and women who worked in it. Though small-scale spinning had often been done by women, the operation of machines such as the mule needed brute force and responsibility for this passed to men. Women took over the operation of looms instead, freeing the men to work the mules.

The shift towards large-scale textile manufacture laid the foundations of the Industrial Revolution but when James Watt and Matthew Boulton patented their steam engine in 1775, the result was an unprecedented leap forward. Initially used in the mining industry for pumping water, steam power brought automation to factories that would once have relied on water for power. Factories could now be built away from water sources for the first time, powered instead by steam. This point was driven home by the opening of Shudehill Mill in 1783. This centre of manufacturing was nowhere near a water source and stood at Manchester's highest point, looking out over the so-called Cottonopolis.

In the inferno-like ironworks, the Industrial Revolution opened up a whole new world of progress. The introduction of a process known as puddling in the late 1700s meant that strong iron could now be mass produced in England for the first time and metal parts for the machines that powered the Industrial Revolution could be made efficiently, quickly and economically. As

Opened in 1781, Shropshire's Iron Bridge was celebrated as the first to be made of cast iron

"Canal-building technologies completely reshaped the country's network of inland water transport"

steam engines improved coal mining, the supply of coal became seemingly endless and it was more affordable than ever. This in turn fed into the iron industry, creating the perfect combination of industries working in tandem. The United Kingdom no longer needed to import and pay for iron but instead began to export and profit from it instead. Just as Manchester grew rich on cotton, now the West Midlands became famed as the Black Country, sitting as it did at the very centre of the metalworking industry.

The need to bring all of these industrial elements together to improve efficiency meant that manufacturing moved into towns and cities, where vast factories centralised production under one roof. Though geographical areas had their own specialities, these became industrial in nature. The once flourishing world of cottage production was slowly dying, becoming smothered by mass production.

Yet all of this innovation was of little use if the products manufactured in the factories couldn't be transported to their consumers at more than a snail's pace. The first innovation in transport came with the creation of a new canal system, which crisscrossed the land and allowed for the speedy transportation of manufactured goods. Britain's canal network underwent a complete overhaul and programme of modernisation, allowing for the efficient transportation of all manner of goods between key industrial centres and beyond.

Canal-building technologies completely reshaped the country's network of inland water transport. Though early canals couldn't go uphill and instead had to find a way around the landscape, modern locks enabled canal transport to easily climb hills, while advancements in tunnel building and aqueduct construction took canals into places where they couldn't have been laid before.

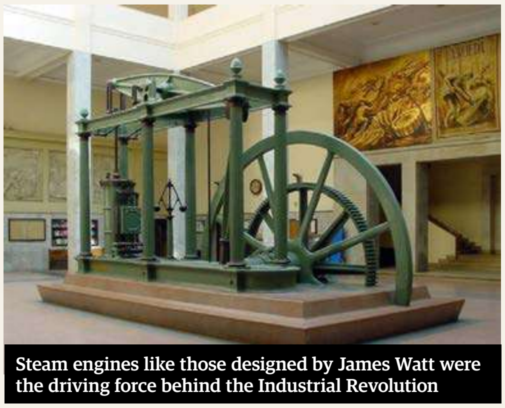
Later still, the earliest railways brought new innovation and possibilities for industrial growth, long before the internal combustion engine did. Suddenly transport was faster than it had ever been, sending British goods to the furthest corners of the United Kingdom and far beyond.

Steam, which had revolutionised so much of the industrial world, made the burgeoning export industry wealthier than ever. Cities such as Newcastle and Liverpool became the centre of the maritime world, with shipbuilding yards supplying the expanding docks. The improved availability and lower cost of iron and steel

Huge mills such as the one at Cromford made entrepreneurs like Richard Arkwright rich men

A vast canal network enabled efficient transport of the raw materials needed for manufacturing, not to mention finished goods

James Hargreaves' spinning jenny revolutionised weaving, reducing the time and labour needed to produce cloth



Steam engines like those designed by James Watt were the driving force behind the Industrial Revolution

allowed for more robust vessels and steamships were the perfect solution to continue the growth of United Kingdom export, shipping British goods all over the world and bringing more money than ever into the economy.

Yet it wasn't only in water transport that things were changing. Thanks to the likes of John Loudon McAdam, who pioneered a technique of constructing roads called 'macadamisation', the nation's roads were also improving. In 1816, surveyor McAdam began to replace the Bristol roads under his care with a new surface that he had developed. A covering of tightly compacted crushed stones was employed on raised roads, creating a surface that was less susceptible to rainwater and was considered the most significant leap forward in road technology in centuries. This meant that the arduous journey from London to Edinburgh, which had taken a fortnight in approximately 1800, could be completed in as little as two days just 30 years later.

In this brave new world of industry, no other nation could compete with Britain's ability to turn out what was needed, when it was needed.

Although the pace of change wasn't overnight, urban areas began to slowly replace the more scattered communities that had once powered the rural and cottage industries. Cities and towns became the centre of manufacturing and people moved from smaller areas into urban centres, to be closer than ever to their places of work. This meant that there was a necessary expansion of public spaces in towns and cities, to ensure that these new inhabitants had places not only to work, but to play, worship and shop, too.

In the changing world, the rewards for those at the top of the pile were immense. Banking flourished in the face of so much new wealth and as the Georgian era gave way to the Victorians in 1837, the first commercial electrical telegraph was bring patented by English duo William Cooke and Charles Wheatstone.

Yet for those who toiled in the factories to make all of these revolutionary dreams a reality, things weren't always so comfortable. Children joined their parents working in difficult and often dangerous positions and women, who had once been the heart of the home, now became another cog in the industrial machine. They worked alongside the men, performing tasks that were just as laborious, yet receiving less money than their male counterparts.

Over the course of decades, the Industrial Revolution changed the face of Britain in every sense of the word. Once an island nation powered by small-scale agricultural and agrarian industry, the country became the centre of a changing world and the heart of an expanding empire. It was a time of unmatched growth and prosperity for some, and punishing upheaval for others. The modern age was dawning and with it, the United Kingdom was discovering what it meant to be the Workshop of the World.

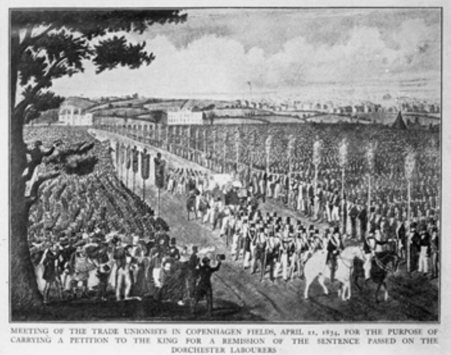
A revolution in working conditions

Working conditions during the Industrial Revolution were far from ideal and with workers flocking to the cities in huge numbers, employers exploited their availability to pay as little as they possibly dared. Workers were forced to endure unimaginably long days in hazardous conditions in return for a pittance. After all, few factory owners wanted to dent their profits by paying a decent wage.

In the hulking monoliths that housed British industry, workers toiled in conditions that could be shocking. With little light and often in extreme temperatures, they kept the wheels of industry turning.

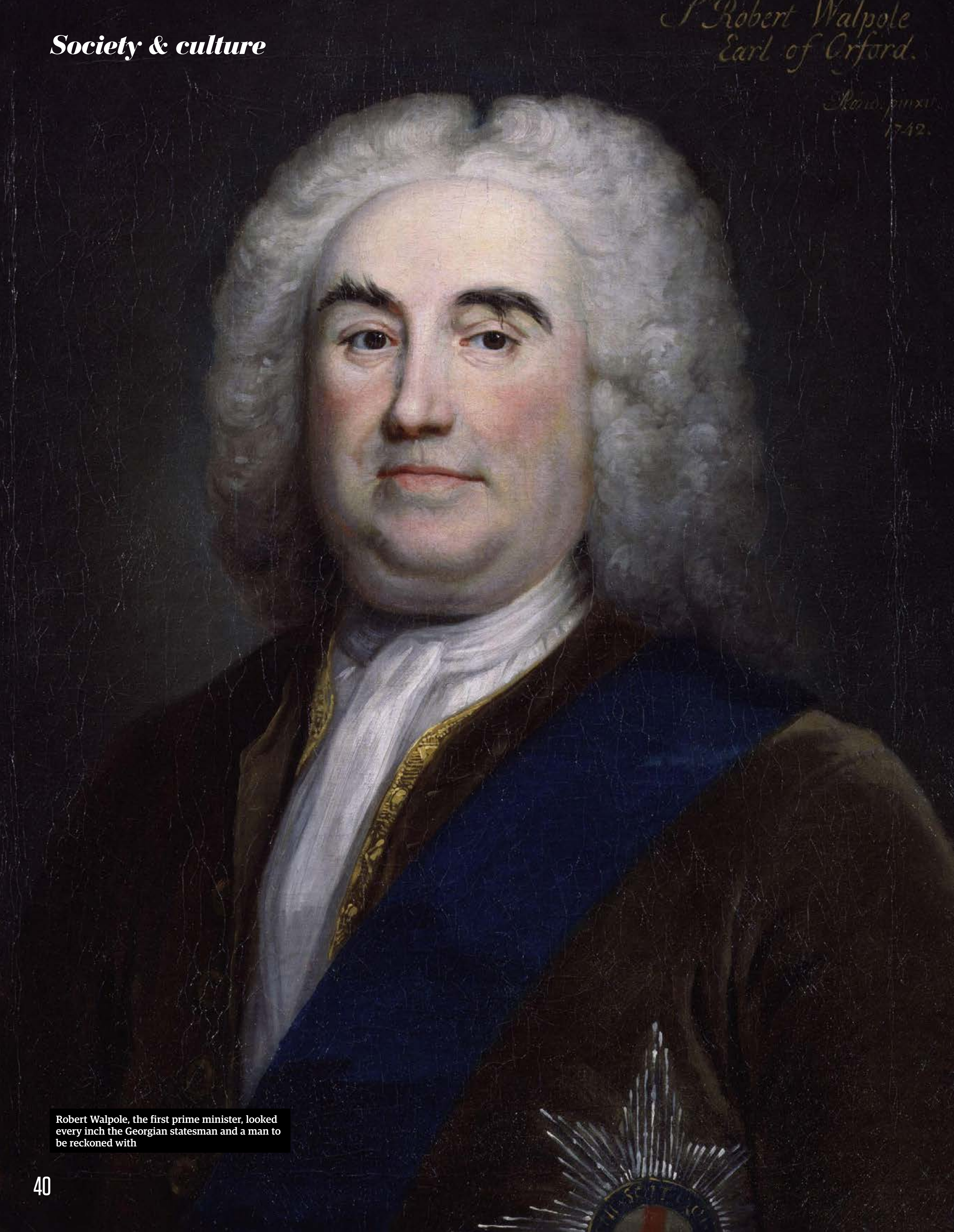
For all their importance as the people who actually operated the means of production, workers during the Industrial Revolution enjoyed precious few rights. They were considered to be near the very bottom of the social heap and for every responsible captain of industry who looked out for his workers, there were plenty who barely saw them as more than machines themselves. As a result, workers began to organise into what became the first labour unions. They campaigned for a fair day's pay as well as the promise that they would be able to work without facing the very real danger of injury, for which they could expect to receive nothing in the way of compensation.

Very slowly, government started responding to the calls for better conditions. Limits were eventually put on working hours, initially for children, then for women, but the pace of change was still slow and for the workers of Britain, life was destined to be hard for many years to come.


MEETING OF THE TRADE UNIONISTS IN COPENHAGEN FIELDS, APRIL 21, 1834, FOR THE PURPOSE OF CARRYING A PETITION TO THE KING FOR A REMISSION OF THE SENTENCE PASSED ON THE DORCHESTER LABOURERS

As the 18th century progressed, British workers began to organise themselves in the hope of gaining better rights and working conditions

©Getty


Robert Walpole
Earl of Orford.
Rand: pinxit
1742.

Robert Walpole, the first prime minister, looked every inch the Georgian statesman and a man to be reckoned with

ROBERT WALPOLE, PRIME MINISTER

Considered to be the nation's first prime minister, Robert Walpole went from the Tower of London to Downing Street

Written by Catherine Curzon

As the son and grandson of long-serving Members of Parliament, Robert Walpole had politics in his blood. Yet neither of them rose to the heights Walpole scaled as the head of what became known as the Robinocracy.

Walpole joined the House of Commons in 1701 as MP for his late father's seat, Castle Rising, then moved onto King's Lynn, which he represented for the majority of the next four decades. Clever, ambitious and shrewd, Walpole rose swiftly through the ranks and established himself as an excellent speaker and administrator until the Tory victory of 1710 swept him from office – but there was worse to come.

Despite the Tories' best efforts to tempt him into their ranks, Walpole instead became their loudest critic. When he was impeached for corruption and imprisoned in the Tower of London in 1712, Walpole believed that political enemies, led by Tory leaders Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, and Henry St John, Viscount Bolingbroke, had conspired to ruin him. He became a martyr for the Whig cause and on his release, he was swiftly re-elected and resumed business as usual.

Walpole's revenge on Oxford and Bolingbroke came in 1714 when George I ascended the throne. In the new Halifax administration, Walpole became Paymaster of the Forces. He was also appointed to lead the committee that went on to impeach both Oxford and Bolingbroke for treason. With his formidable political smarts and a work ethic with no limits, Walpole knew exactly how to play the instrument of government to his own advantage. This was an era of the two-party system, the Whigs and the Tories. The former was the party of the established aristocratic order that had thrown its support behind the Protestant succession, buoyed by a new class made up of the nouveau riche, who had made their fortunes in industry. The latter, meanwhile, enjoyed strong connections with the church and had been less keen on crowning the family from Hanover.

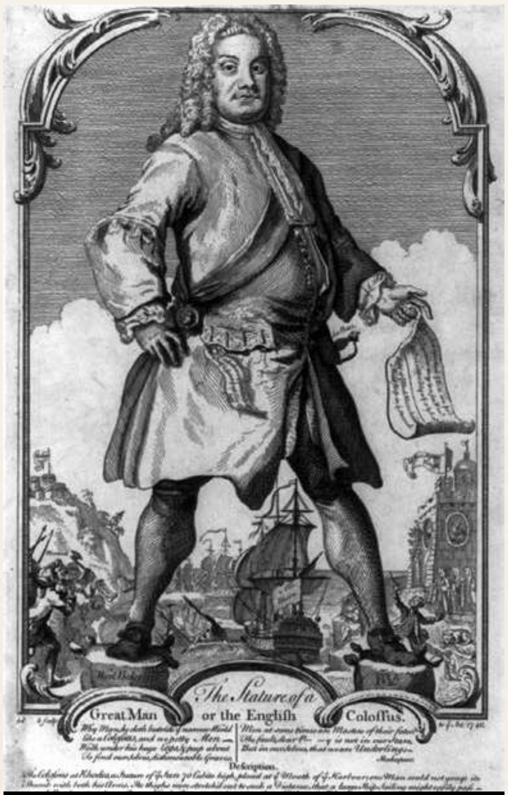
Unlike today, in which each member of the electorate has a vote to use as they see fit, in the 18th century, the electorate was far smaller. In so-called 'rotten boroughs', one person controlled the way in which the voting would go, meaning that rich or influential parliamentary hopefuls could lean on whoever controlled the borough to ensure voting went their way.

A tiny percentage of the population had the right to vote and those who did were men of fortune and property, who might not be driven by the purest motives. While some enormous cities didn't have an MP to call their own, the rotten boroughs could have more than one member to represent them, influencing the Parliamentary will unduly. Old Sarum, a hill in Wiltshire, managed to have two Members of Parliament despite having no inhabitants!

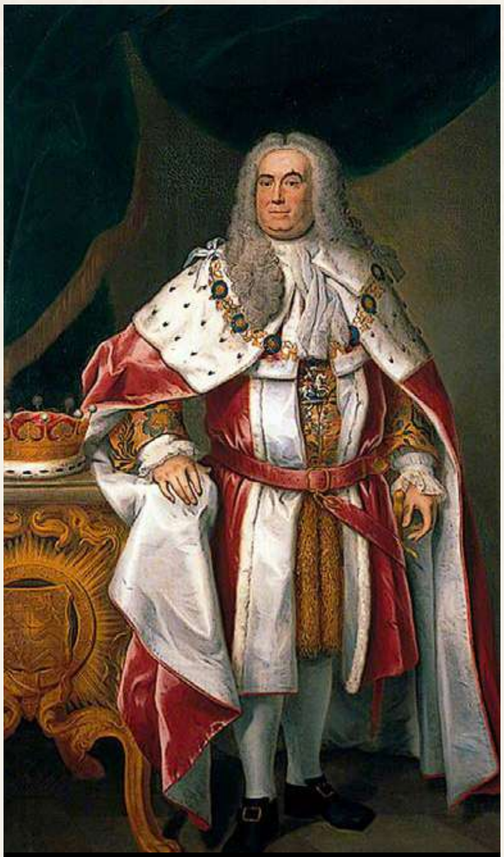
Though Walpole would certainly turn royal favour to his advantage, he didn't exactly endear himself to the new king. Appointed First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1715, he left the government in 1717 in protest at what he saw as the sacrifice of British interest in the interest of Hanoverian schemes. He became the centre of the unofficial opposition court organised by the king's son and heir, George, Prince of Wales, and his politically shrewd wife, Caroline of Ansbach, who was to be Walpole's strongest ally throughout her husband's reign.

When the king and prince had become estranged, George I took custody of his grandchildren, which sent Caroline into a spiral of despair. Against all odds, Walpole was able to

> "Despite the Tories' best efforts to tempt him into their ranks, Walpole was their loudest critic"



Walpole's supporters likened him to the Rhodes Colossus, towering God-like over other mere mortals!



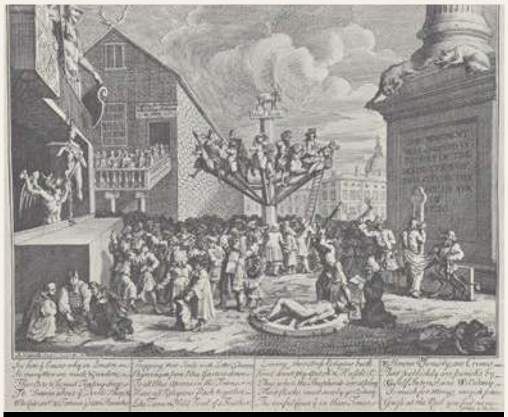
Few politicians before or since could match Walpole for his skills as an orator, let alone his understanding of parliament

engineer a rather wobbly reconciliation between the two Georges in 1720, negotiating not only the settlement of the Prince of Wales' debts, but also return of the children. Caroline remained eternally grateful and loyal to Walpole. Walpole's payment was a return to office as Paymaster of the Forces. In taking this appointment, he returned to George I's favour, but lost that of the Prince of Wales, who was a sworn opponent of the government.

Walpole took centre stage thanks to the catastrophic pop of the South Sea Bubble, a financial collapse that almost bankrupted the country. Innumerable hopeful investors had bought shares in the South Sea Company, which had underwritten the national debt and promised huge returns to its investors. Lauded and promoted by king and government alike, the scheme was a scam and left its investors ruined, from the richest to the poorest. Having never encouraged such investments, Walpole was free from the whiff of corruption that tainted his fellows and it was he who stepped in to steer the government through the scandal, as well as choose who would serve as scapegoat. He saved some senior Whigs and sent others, including the Chancellor the Exchequer, to wither on the altar of public opinion. Those he let slip through the net knew that they would be forever in Walpole's debt, and he might call in the favour at any time.

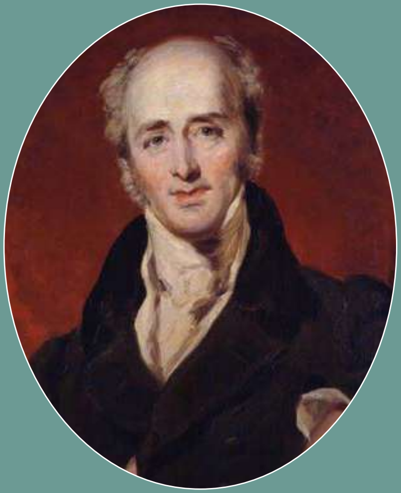
Walpole's ride to the rescue was rewarded with the office of First Lord of the Treasury in 1721. With his deep interest in every aspect of government and his personal involvement in every decision his administration took, he became the first example of what we would now call 'prime minister'. He held onto the role for 21 years and his iron grip on power loosened only once, when George I died in 1727.

George II didn't share his wife's love of Walpole and had come to view Spencer Compton as a more suitable prime minister. Yet Compton, on the eve of his triumphant appointment, made a fatal error. When the new king asked him to prepare a speech, he went to Walpole for help. Not so accidentally, Walpole included a passage that the king disapproved of and



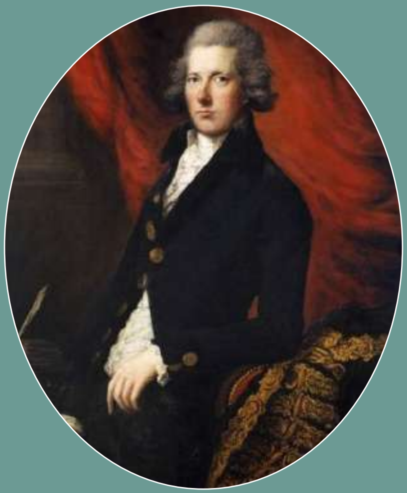
When the South Sea Bubble went pop, Walpole steered the country through disaster, cementing his popularity

The men who ruled from parliament



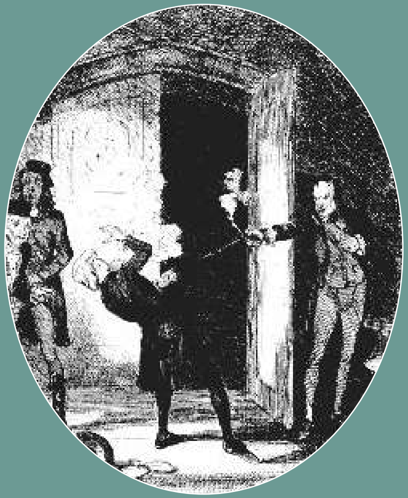
Charles Grey, 2nd Earl Grey

Charles Grey was one of the last prime ministers of the Georgian era. He served from 1830 to 1834 and his term included two highly significant acts. The first of these, the Representation of the People Act 1832, completely reformed the outdated electoral system of England and Wales. The second, the Slavery Abolition Act 1833, abolished slavery throughout the British Empire.



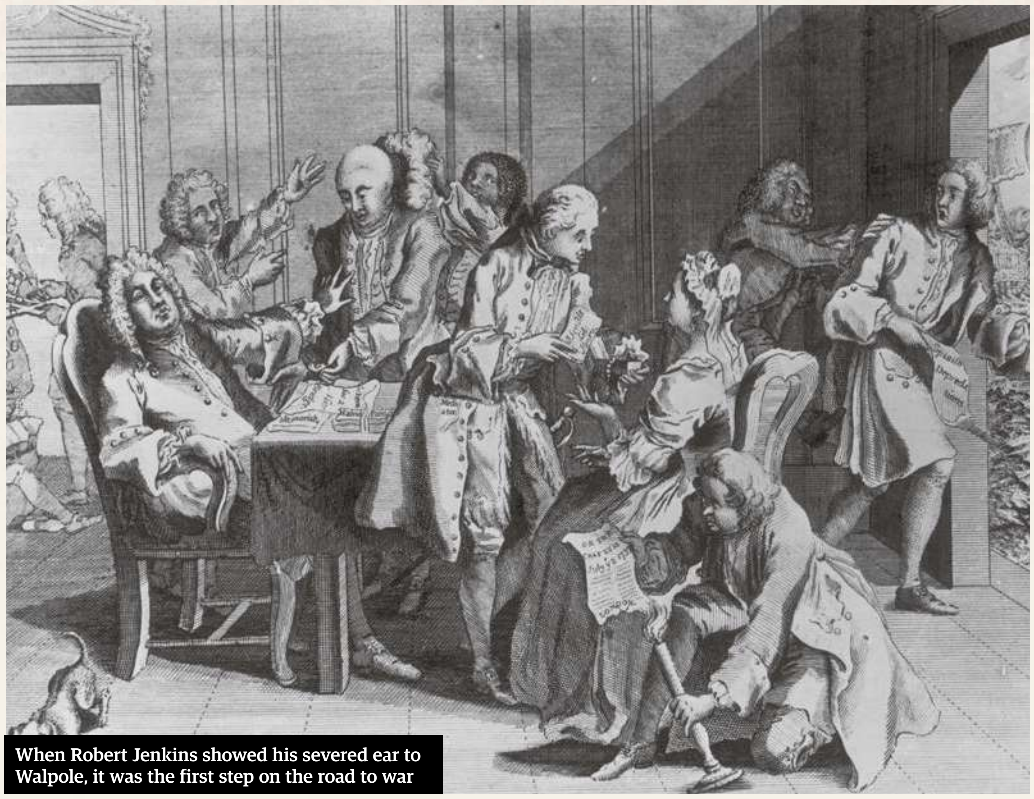
William Pitt the Younger

Pitt the Younger was just 24 when he became the youngest-ever prime minister in 1783, a role his father had filled years earlier. Pitt breathed new life into the beleaguered Tories and steered Britain through wars with France and Napoleon. He championed the Acts of Union, which created the United Kingdom, and is considered one of Britain's greatest prime misters.

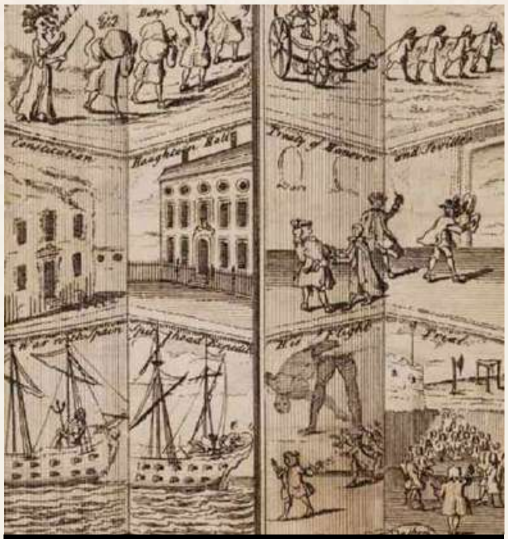


Spencer Perceval

Spencer Perceval defended Caroline of Brunswick against accusations of infidelity made by her husband, the future George IV, but it's for his death that he's more commonly remembered. On 11 May 1812 he was shot dead in the House of Commons by lone assassin John Bellingham. So far, he is the only British prime minister to die at the hands of an assassin.



When Robert Jenkins showed his severed ear to Walpole, it was the first step on the road to war



Hogarth's pen captured perfectly the clamour and despair when the South Sea Bubble burst

> "He favoured a policy of peace wherever possible and used his leverage with the king to ensure he got his wish"

when Compton was unable to assuage the king's concerns, Walpole was summoned as the man who wrote the passage in question. By the end of the meeting, Walpole had convinced George II not to replace him with Compton, promising an enormous financial settlement should he be allowed to continue as First Lord of the Treasury. Outplayed, Compton had to wait 15 long years before he could hold the highest office in the land.

Though Walpole's reign was long, it was never easy and nowhere did he face more difficulty than in foreign policy. He favoured a policy of peace wherever possible and used his leverage with the king to ensure he got his wish, though many of his peers believed he wasn't serving England's interests by avoiding conflict. He also aroused their ire by playing the system of royal patronage squarely to the advantage of his own Whig interests, promoting his supporters and frustrating those who might prove problematic.

Walpole's championing and guidance of Queen Caroline paid dividends in 1735 when she gave him the keys to 10 Downing Street, a gift in recognition of all he had done in the interests of her husband. Robert Walpole, it seemed, was utterly immovable.

Yet Walpole wasn't infallible. He was growing older and with the death of Caroline in 1737, his decline began. His efforts at negotiation failed to prevent the so-called War of Jenkins' Ear against Spain and his opponents used this conflict to whip up opposition to him among those who were ambitious to progress beyond the Robinocracy. Walpole resigned in 1742 and was created Earl of Orford by George II. He remained an influential voice in British politics, and continued to play his advantage with the king until the day he died in 1745.

Walpole never embraced the title of prime minister, but he certainly deserved it. No politician before him had understood politics as well as he, and his focus on peace led to that mythical thing, a prosperous nation with low taxation. He assured Whig dominance for decades and neutralised his opponents through his understanding and manipulation of the system of government and royal patronage. Walpole was a man to be reckoned with, one whose ambition and cunning were matched by a fierce intelligence. As a political colossus who bestrode the reign of two very different kings, he has yet to be equalled.

Defining moments in the career of Robert Walpole

The South Sea Bubble bursts

1720-1721

When the South Sea Company underwrote the national debt and offered investors unprecedented returns on stocks, everyone clamoured for a share. Yet the enterprise was a scam and almost bankrupted Britain. When Walpole came in to firefight, he made an example of some, saved others and set the economy back on track. It was his finest moment, launching his prime ministerial career.

The Excise Bill

April 1733

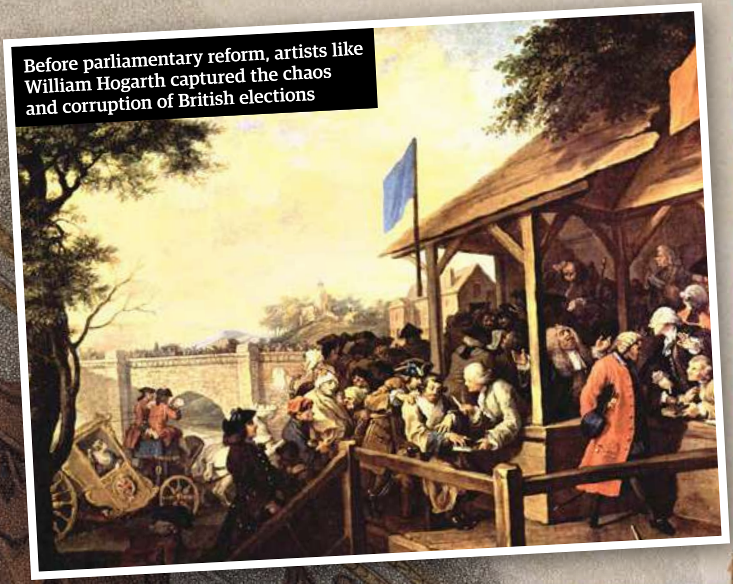
When Walpole proposed a new excise tax on tobacco and wine, he angered the powerful merchant class. Amid fierce opposition on the streets and in parliament, Walpole was forced to abandon the bill. Though his opponents were victorious, those who had opposed the bill too loudly found their careers swiftly curtailed, a reminder that it didn't do to cross Robert Walpole.

The War of Jenkins' Ear

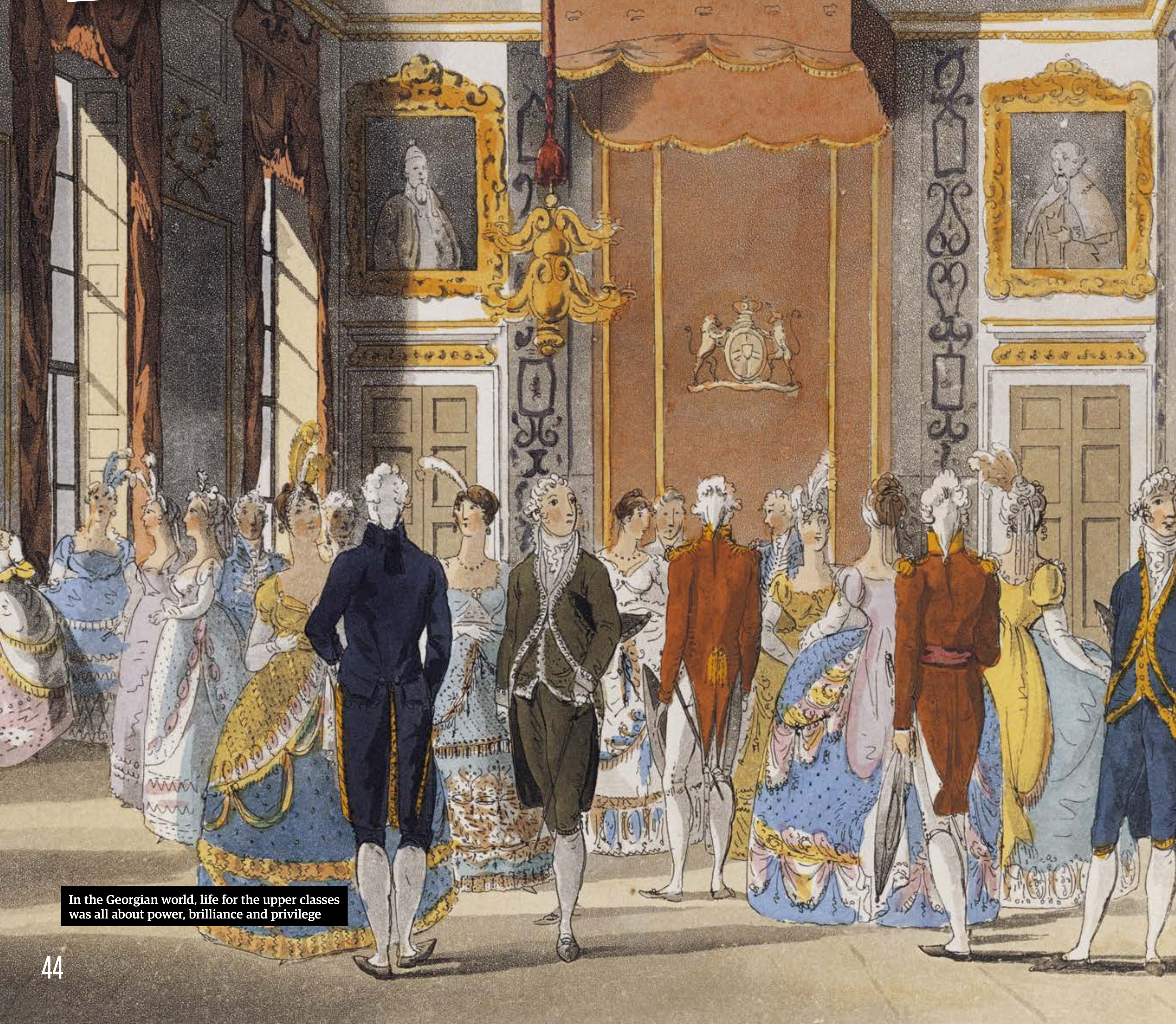
1739-1748

In 1738, Captain Robert Jenkins showed what he claimed was his own severed ear in the House of Commons, blaming the amputation on Spanish coastguards who had raided his ship. It was the tipping point that led Britain into war with Spain, an initiative that Walpole didn't support. The war went badly, fatally undermining Walpole's power and popularity.

© Getty; Wiki



Before parliamentary reform, artists like William Hogarth captured the chaos and corruption of British elections



In the Georgian world, life for the upper classes was all about power, brilliance and privilege

CLASS AND ENTERTAINMENT

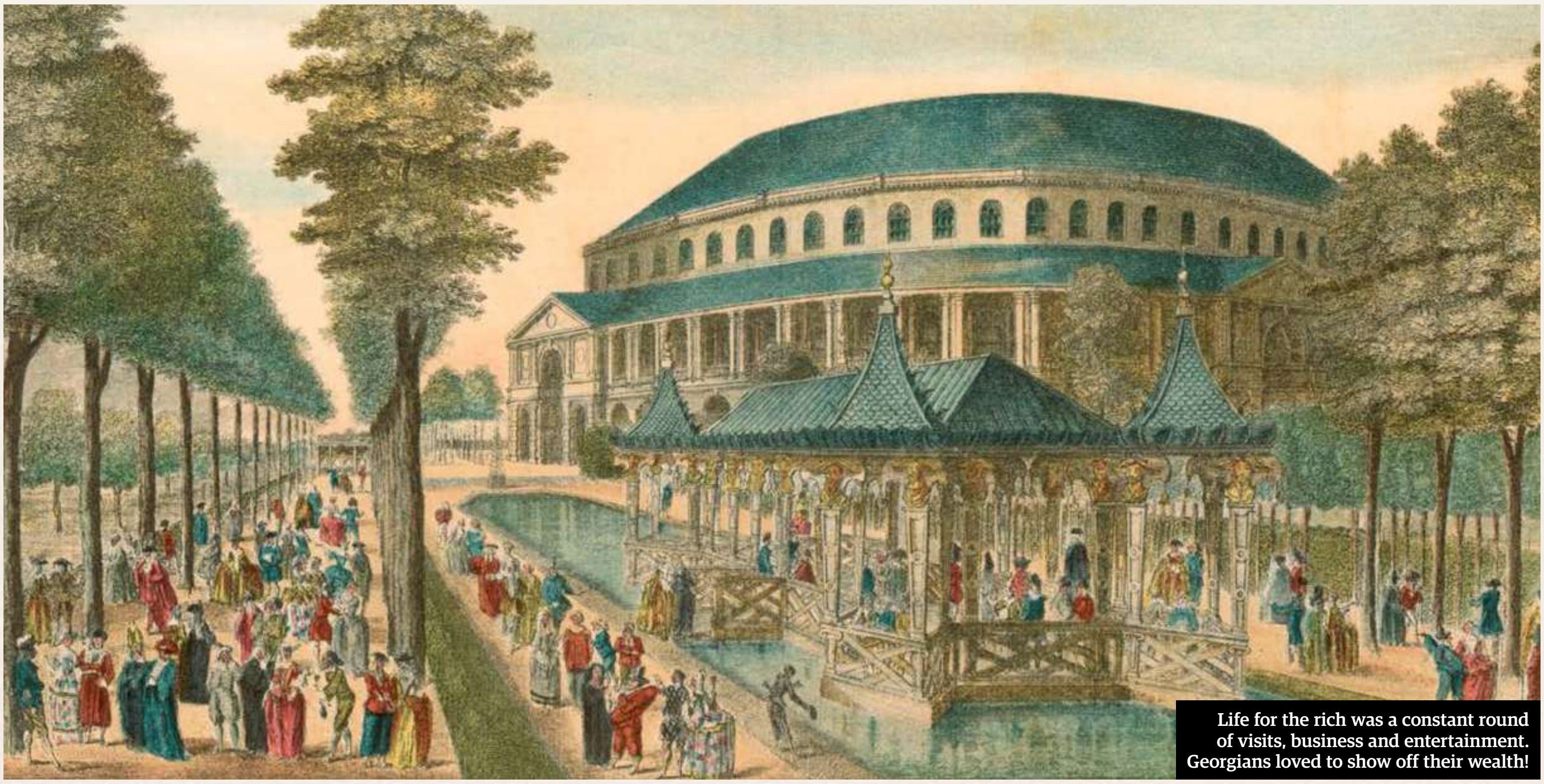
Georgian Britain was a world of contrasts. Yet from the richest to the poorest, everyone loved having a good time

Written by Catherine Curzon

In the heady world of the Georgians, Great Britain's class system – lauded by some, decried by others – had become a somewhat fluid concept. The world was changing at a rapid rate for rich and poor alike, as modernisation swept across the kingdom. Britain's ancient feudal system had been swept aside by the English Civil War. Where once there had been an unchallenged, all-powerful aristocracy, there was now a new class. This was a rising group of wealthy entrepreneurs and gentry, the nouveau riche whose wealth came not from their dynastic history, but industry and enterprise.

Once the upper classes had been the purview of those who owned the most land but as the century progressed, the Industrial Revolution saw the social landscape change, allowing for more social mobility. The upper classes were being infiltrated by those who might not have been born to land-owning families, but were growing wealthy through manufacturing and trade, with rich new opportunities created by the expanding British empire. Beneath them a new middle class emerged too, made up of those educated employees who filled the roles that existed between business owners and workers. There were the clerks and professionals, those with enterprise and ambition who hoped to break into the upper class one day too.

Though the nouveau riche was flourishing, the working class remained subdued. All this ambition and social climbing relied on the industry of workers. For those at the bottom, life was hard. After all, the rising middle class could hardly extend their fortune to their workers, or who knew where it might end? Electoral reforms might benefit the middle classes and disenfranchise the upper class, but for the working class, their moment of suffrage was a long time coming.



Life for the rich was a constant round of visits, business and entertainment. Georgians loved to show off their wealth!

The upper class life

In work as well as play, life for upper class Georgians was governed by protocol, rank and privilege

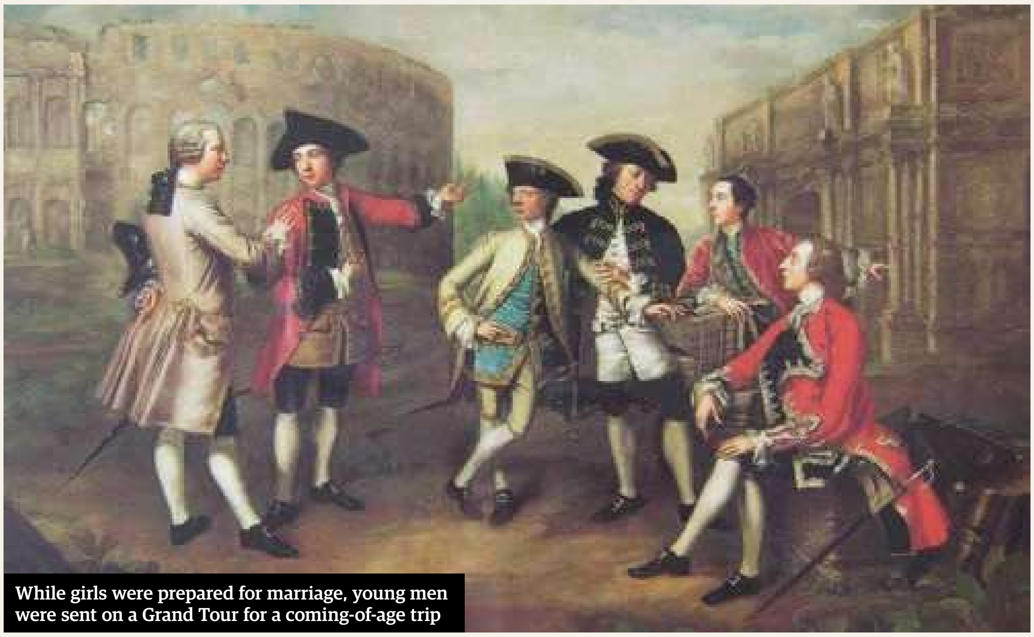
As the Georgian era dawned over Great Britain, the once-established order was in a state of flux. For centuries, wealth had been equated to land and to enjoy a place in the rarified upper class, you needed to possess a great deal of land indeed. At the top of the pile sat the monarchy and beneath that, the aristocracy and peerage, whose family names could be traced back through the generations and centuries of royal favour.

Beneath them was the landed gentry, landlords who owned estates that financed their lifestyles. These were educated men, alumni of famous private schools who followed in the footsteps of their forefathers. They sat in parliament, representing the seats that their ancestors had before them, and their careers were drawn from traditional, respectable worlds such as government, the law or the military.

The 18th century upper classes lived in a world of inherited wealth and privilege where titles, property and money passed down from one generation to the next. Eldest children, usually but not always male, were destined to become the head of the family in their turn, just as they had for generations. For those lucky enough to be courtiers, meanwhile, the atmosphere was rarified indeed. These individuals made their lives at the heart of the royal circle, usually serving in roles that assisted the monarch or the running of the household and the pickings could be rich.

Naturally, for men and women the experience was very different. The eldest son of a family was trained to take his father's place, while the younger would be expected to go into a respectable profession. Their daughters, however, had no such prospects. Their education was traditionally limited to the skills that would make them an attractive proposition to would-be suitors. Male and female alike learned good manners and etiquette, but while young men might be sent overseas on a Grand Tour, their sisters were learning to dance and sing, to paint and play instruments, and generally, with an eye to their futures, to 'sparkle'. Only when they were ready were they presented at court, officially introduced to the queen in a ceremony that essentially told the world these young ladies were ripe for marriage.

Of course, some women broke away from the accepted order, but they were few and far between. In the upper classes of the 18th century, progress was a rarely heard word.

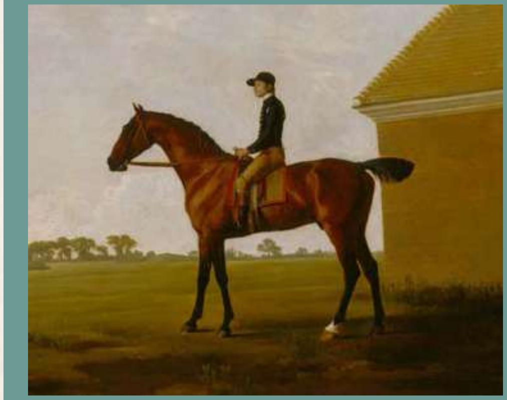


While girls were prepared for marriage, young men were sent on a Grand Tour for a coming-of-age trip

Upper class amusements

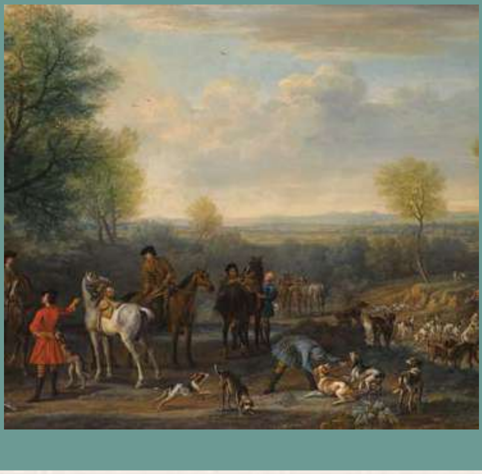
Horse racing

Horse racing in Georgian Britain was a chance to network. Royals could be charmed, careers progressed. In the winner's enclosure, monarchs could often be glimpsed celebrating the victory of their own horses.



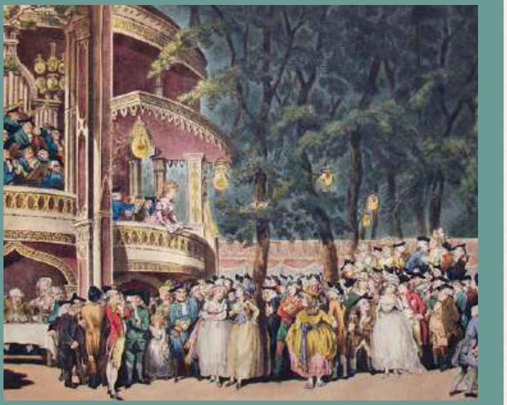
Hunting in the country

Hunting was particularly popular with 18th century men. As well as the thrill of the chase, a hunt meet was a chance to oil the wheels of business too.



The pleasure gardens

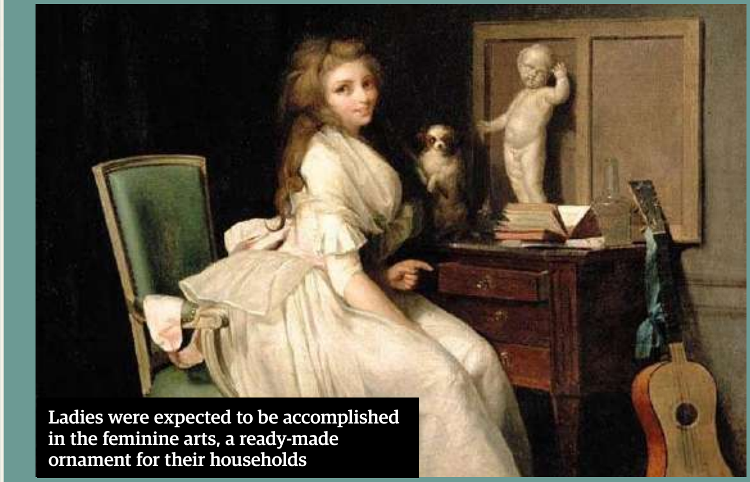
No Georgian night on the town was complete without a visit to the Pleasure Gardens. Here one could stroll along lamplit avenues, enjoy a meal and entertainment, or marvel at breathtaking landscapes.



A day in the life of the upper classes

Run the household

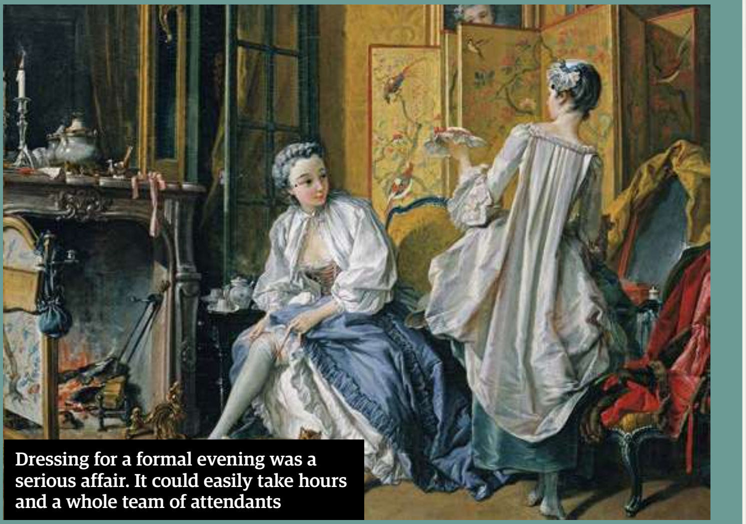
After taking breakfast with her children, the lady of the house would spend some time with her housekeeper, addressing matters regarding the running of the house and any particularly requirements or concerns. For younger ladies, this was time for education and self-improvement, geared towards following their mother into this vital domestic role. As married ladies and their housekeepers conversed, their daughters undertook lessons that were crafted to create the perfect model of a future bride. From learning languages to music lessons and even prayer to ensure just the right amount of piety, self-improvement was the name of the game. After all, there were a lot of marriageable young ladies in the world, so it was important to stand out!



Ladies were expected to be accomplished in the feminine arts, a ready-made ornament for their households

Dress for dinner

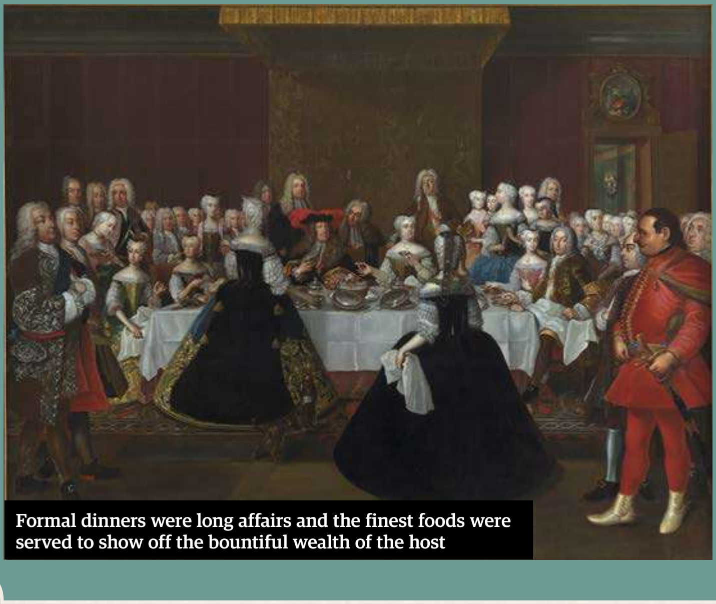
After luncheon, or nuncheon, if a lady had an important engagement in the evening, it wouldn't be at all strange for her to spend the entire afternoon preparing for the night to come. After a suitable period of rest, it was time to be dressed and primped ready to face the public. In the era of enormous panniers and even bigger hair, the richest ladies would be attended by a whole entourage of dressers and coiffeurs, dedicated to creating the perfect picture of wealthy femininity. The most elaborate hairdos would be held up by wooden or wire structures, stuffed with padding and powder, and decorated with elaborate ornamentation that could last for days on end!



Dressing for a formal evening was a serious affair. It could easily take hours and a whole team of attendants

Enjoy a feast with friends

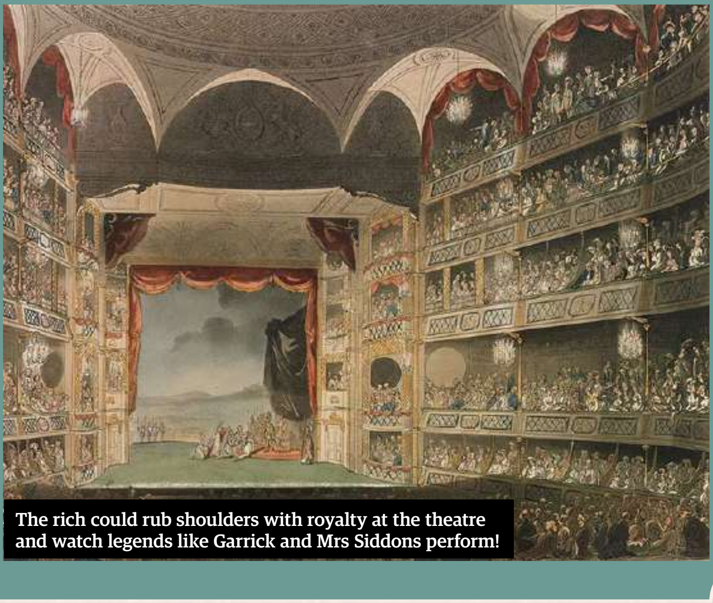
A formal dinner would begin in the early evening and should be expected to last for several hours. These dinners were elaborate and highly regimented affairs, intended to cement social standing and position. Seating plans were strictly adhered to and reflected the status of the guests, subtly conveying a wealth of social messages to the attendees. After dinner, the women retired to the drawing room together and left the men alone in the dining room to discuss business and matters that were, supposedly, far too weighty for feminine minds to comprehend! It was a chance for fathers to sing the praises of their daughters, of course, should any of the men present have eligible sons looking for a bride.



Formal dinners were long affairs and the finest foods were served to show off the bountiful wealth of the host

Take in a show at the theatre

Though a trip to the theatre wouldn't be a nightly occurrence, for an upper class family it was certainly a regular event. This was a pastime that all classes could share, though their experiences would be very different indeed. In the early Georgian era, the most wealthy attendees could pay a surcharge to sit on the stage itself, which allowed them to show off their finery to an audience that might well contain some of their contemporaries or would-be suitors. The Georgian kings and their families regularly attended the theatre, and the upper classes might use this as an opportunity to properly show their deference and respect to the monarch, not to mention one-up their rivals and peers!



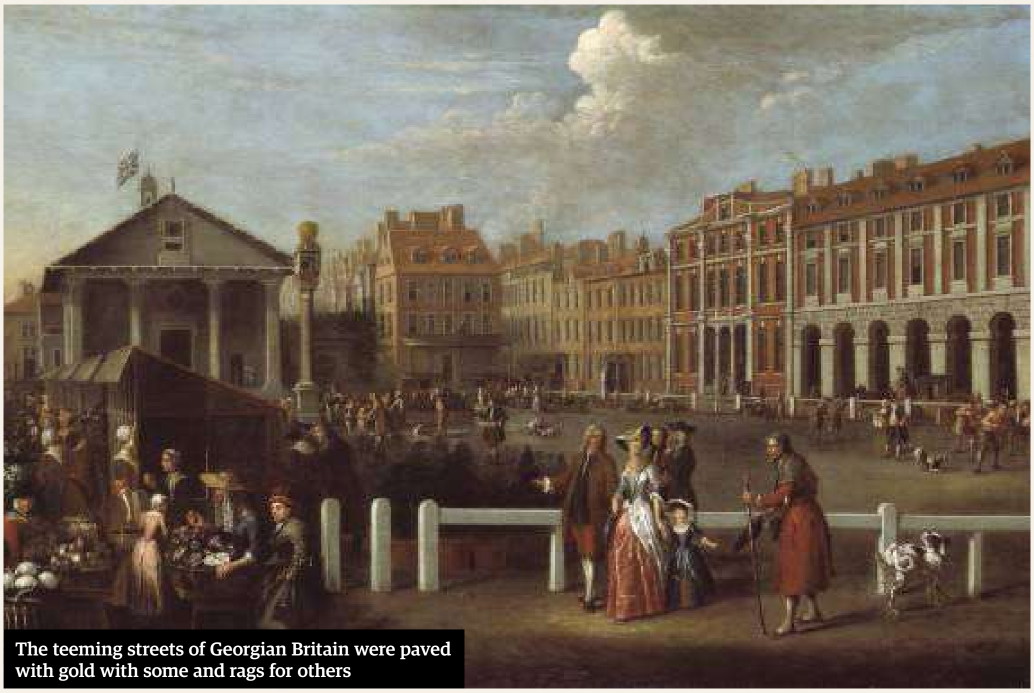
The rich could rub shoulders with royalty at the theatre and watch legends like Garrick and Mrs Siddons perform!

Lower class life

For lower class Georgians life could be hard, but there was still room for fun

To be working class in 18th century society didn't necessarily mean to be poor, but whether living in the rookery or scraping a living in the factories, it was far from glamorous.

In a country with a swiftly rising population, economic times could be hard and lower class Georgians felt this more than ever. The seams of the cities of England seemed stretched to bursting and for those at the bottom of the heap, this meant they were forced into the glowering rookeries, tightly packed housing where deprivation was the norm. Education was the preserve of a fortunate few indeed and often provided by the church, but in a world where money was scarce, working was the only option if you didn't want to starve.



The teeming streets of Georgian Britain were paved with gold with some and rags for others

Work was heavy and as the century advanced, men, women and children alike sought employment in factories or mills. Domestic service was another option for women and girls who might at least be guaranteed a roof over their head. Whatever the job, days were long and money was scarce. This was an era in which healthcare was a privilege, not a right. Thomas Coram's Foundling Hospital was established in 1741 to cope with the number of abandoned babies born to women who couldn't hope to care for them.

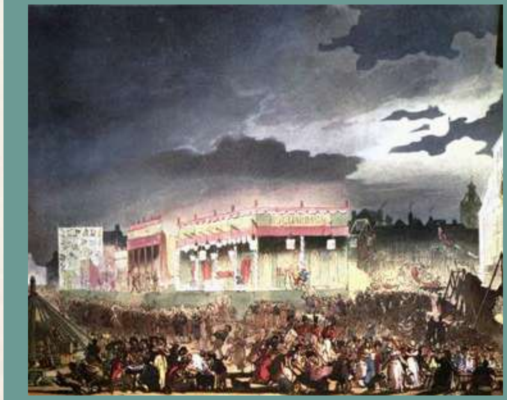
Yet advancement was possible, though the gulf from the working class to the middle and even higher was large indeed and precious few climbed the social ranks. For every Dorothy Clement or Gunning sister, where women born into poverty rose to the very top of society thanks to a judicious marriage, there were a thousand unhappy endings.

It was a world in which women had to capitalise on what they had and if that was good looks and chutzpah, it might just be enough. Ambitious men, meanwhile, sought to escape their narrow horizons by joining the army or navy and progressing through the ranks. However, with military commissions on sale to the richest bidder, a man had to distinguish himself to hope to advance this way. Yet it could be done. Just ask Ambrose O'Higgins. Born in County Sligo to a tenant farmer, he ended his days as Viceroy of Chile and, of course, being a man, he didn't have to rely on his good looks to do it.

Lower class amusements

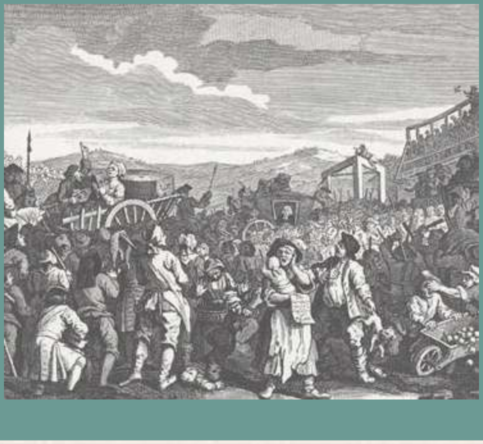
Fairs

Traditional fairs were an important event in the calendar of working class Georgians. Famed events such as the Bartholomew Fair offered a wealth of entertainment for everyone, from innocent to saucy!



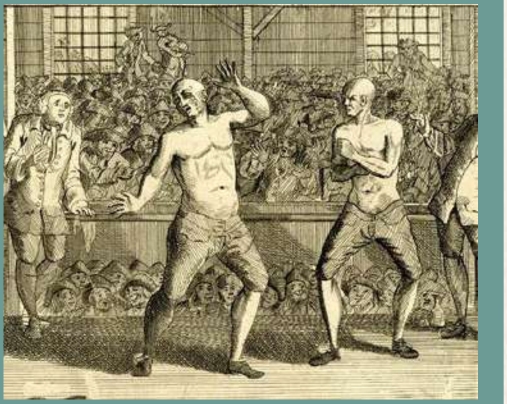
Public executions

Hugely popular public executions were free to view. In London, the condemned were paraded from Newgate to Tyburn through vast crowds and the atmosphere was more carnival than funeral.



Bare knuckle boxing

Ferocious, often ungoverned boxing matches provided unmatched entertainment for Georgians. With both male and female pugilists keen to fight, success in a bout could mean fame and fortune.

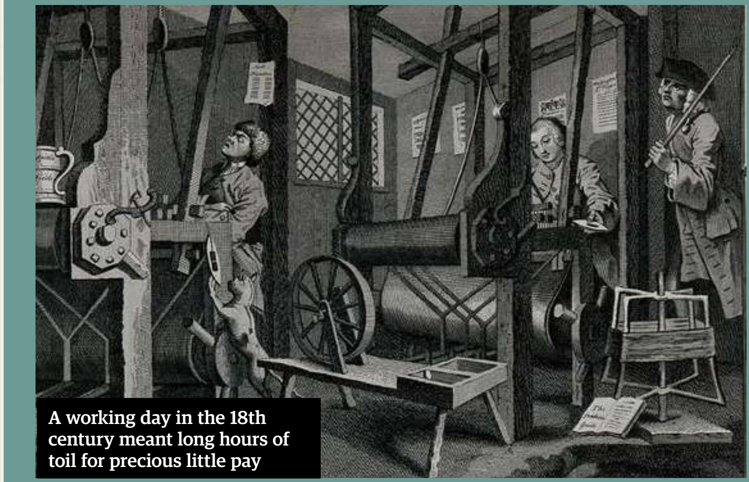


A day in the life of the lower classes

Go to work

By 6am, workers were beginning their day at the mill, on the farm or wherever they had been lucky enough to gain the employment that would hopefully keep them from total penury. For 13 hours they toiled in backbreaking conditions alongside men, women and children who were subjected to dangerous conditions, powering industries that would help the men at the top claw their way into the upper classes, where money could buy a seat at the richest table.

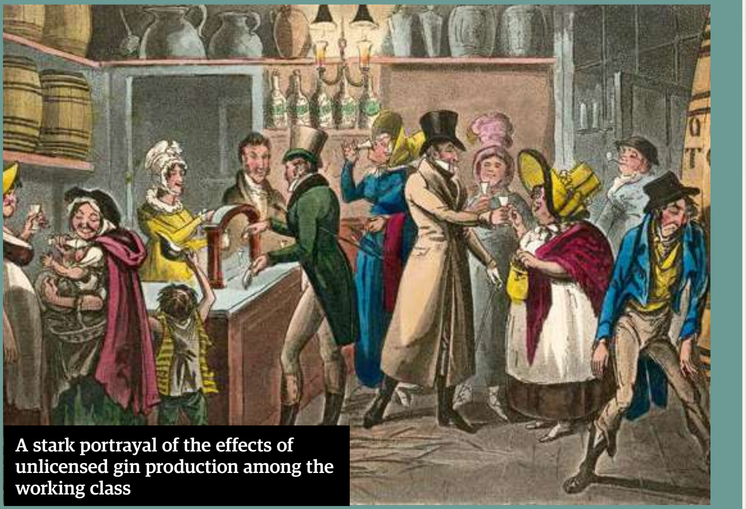
There was no top table for the lower class worker, of course, and whether in the factory, the mine, the shipyard or the farm, there was noise, heat and danger to contend with, but the rewards were far from generous.



A working day in the 18th century meant long hours of toil for precious little pay

Enjoy a drink at the pub

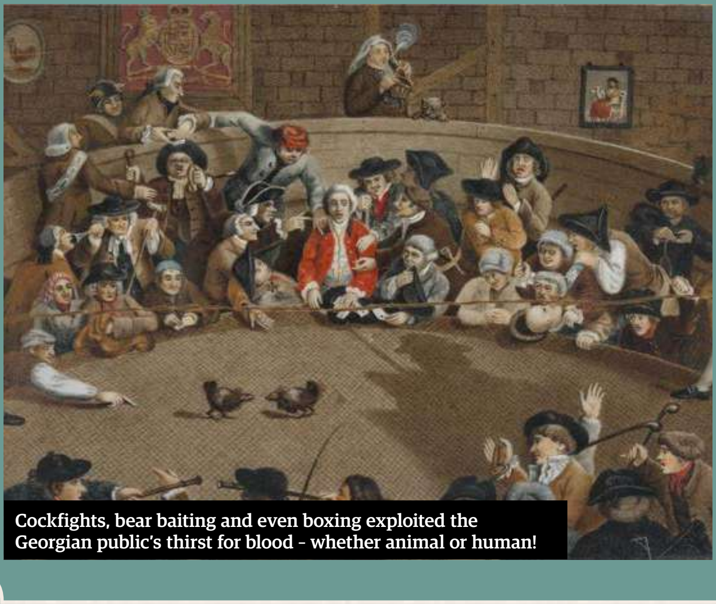
After a long day at work, who could blame the working class Georgian for relaxing with a strong drink? For those who succumbed to it, gin could be a deceptive mistress. It chased away the cold and filled the empty belly, as well as providing a few hours away from the reality of life in the rookeries and factories. Yet Britain's love of gin led to a rash of alcoholism and with no license required to distil it let alone regulation of production, 18th century gin could be dangerous indeed. The horrors of the gin craze were depicted in Hogarth's nightmarish *Gin Lane* and its cheery sister piece *Beer Street*, which sang the virtues of honest ale over ruinous spirits.



A stark portrayal of the effects of unlicensed gin production among the working class

Watch a boxing match

With overcrowded rooms waiting for them at home, once a working class Georgian had a few gins to warm them, where better to spend the evening than watching fighters or chickens knocking seven bells out of one another? With boxing matches and cockfights alike often held in taverns and alehouses, a patron could sit back with a strong drink, put a meagre bet on the outcome of the bout and dream of a big win. Far from the 21st century, there was an unimaginable hunger for bloodsports in the Georgian era across every class, from the upper class hunting parties on grand estates, to the cockpits in gloomy London lanes, where bloody conflict meant a night of affordable, rowdy entertainment.

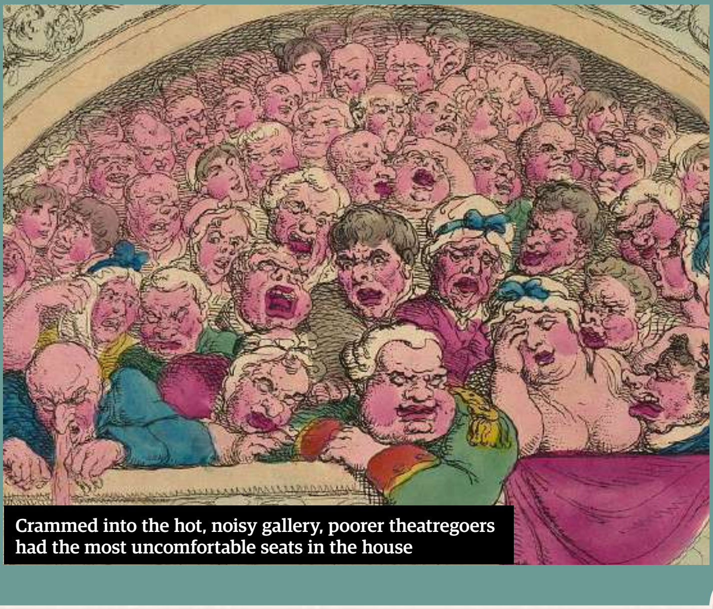


Cockfights, bear baiting and even boxing exploited the Georgian public's thirst for blood – whether animal or human!

Take in a show from the galleries

The theatre was a place where all social classes found entertainment, but their experiences couldn't have been more different. As the king sat in the grandest box in Covent Garden, with the upper class patrons alongside, the poor were huddled into the galleries at the highest point in the building. Here they drank, heckled and even occasionally spat onto the upper classes in the boxes below.

Elsewhere, the poor could go to a so-called 'penny theatre', where they paid a penny to enjoy low budget, short productions. If even this was beyond the budget, some taverns hosted their own entertainments, from singers to jugglers and beyond, for patrons to enjoy.



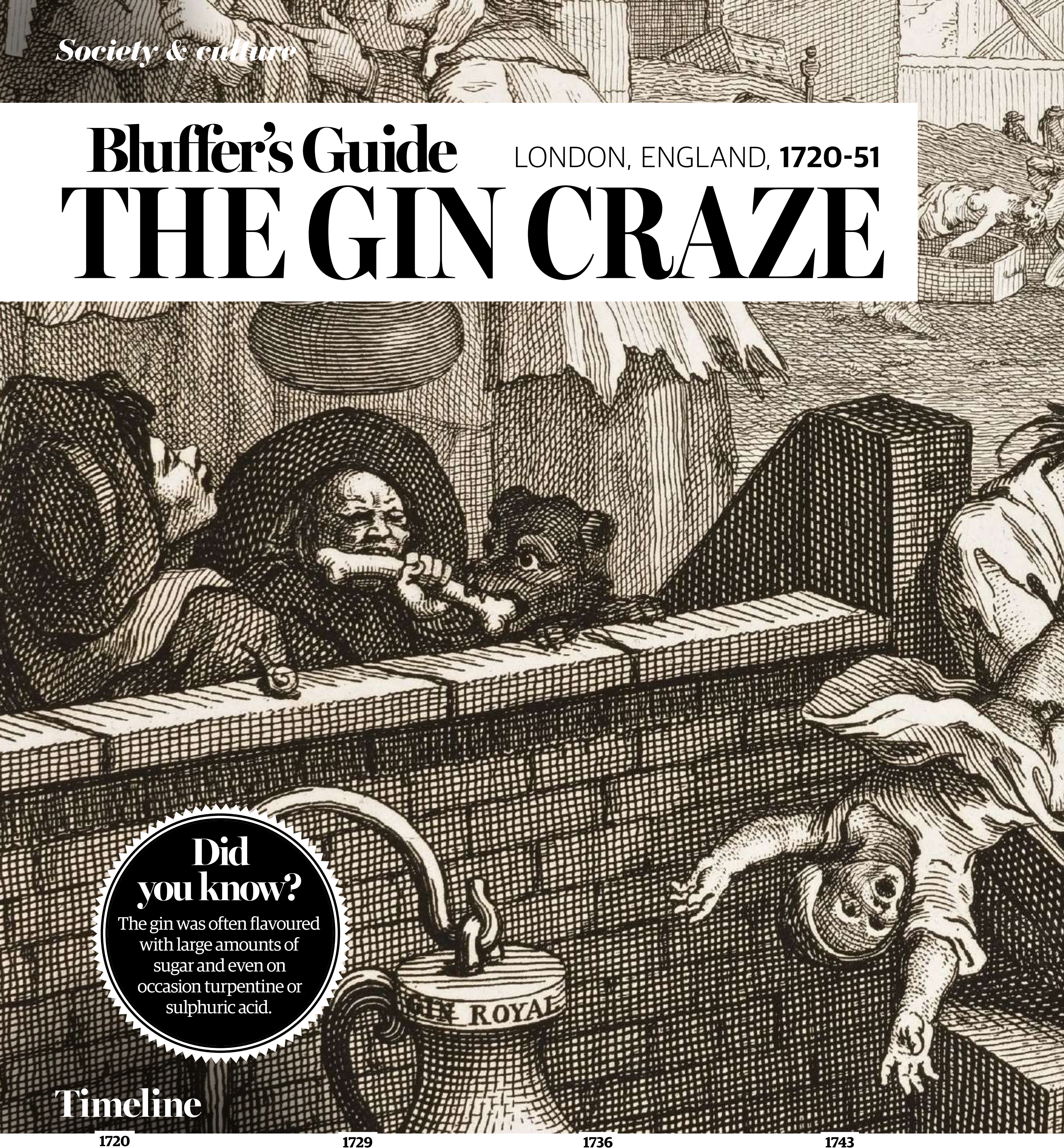
Crammed into the hot, noisy gallery, poorer theatregoers had the most uncomfortable seats in the house

© Getty, Wiki

Bluffer's Guide

LONDON, ENGLAND, **1720-51**

THE GIN CRAZE



Did you know?

The gin was often flavoured with large amounts of sugar and even on occasion turpentine or sulphuric acid.

Timeline

1720

Woeful working conditions drive London workers to the bottle, and being cheap, accessible and easy to distil, gin is consumed excessively.

1729

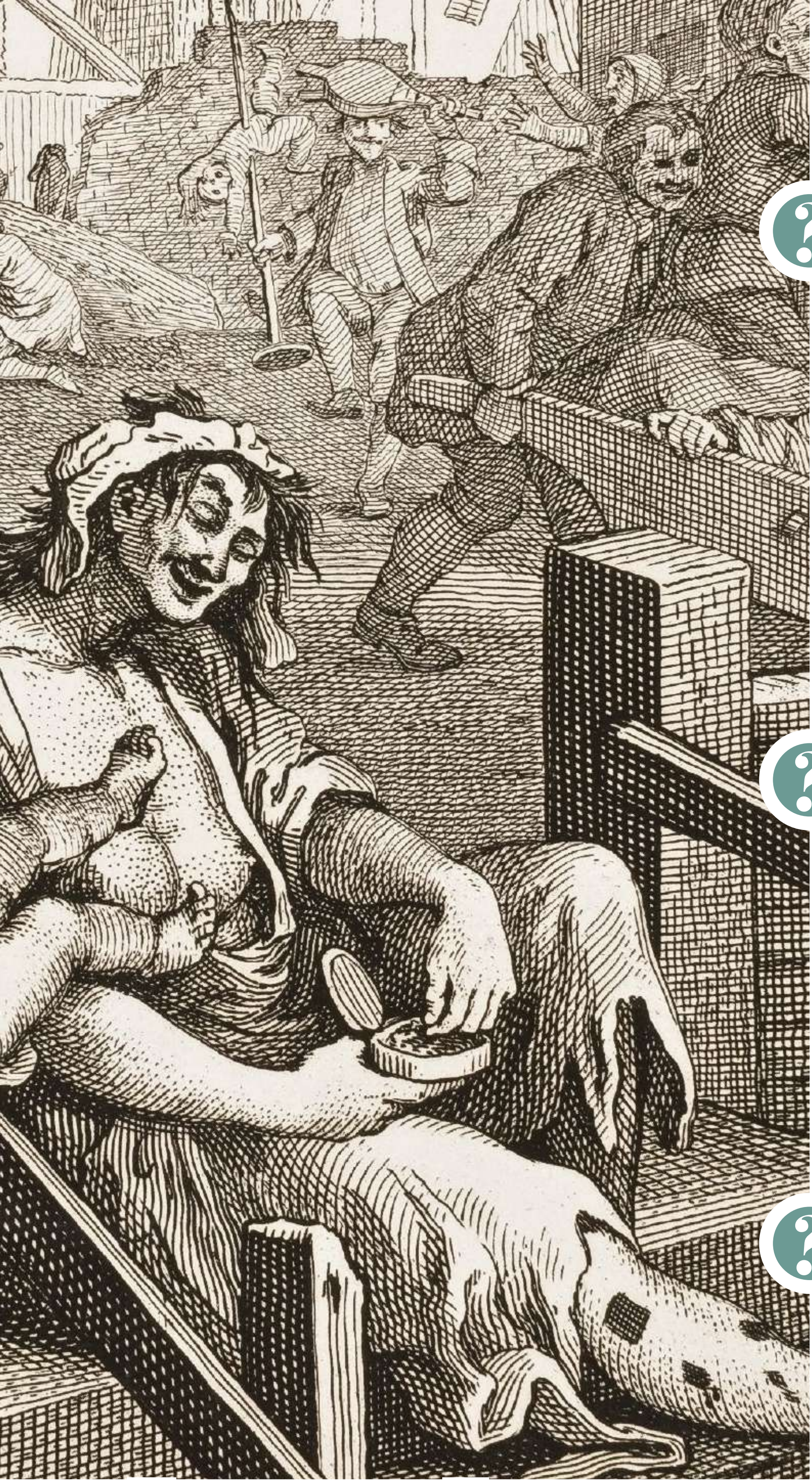
As the social issue escalates, the first act against gin distillation is passed, however, it has little effect as many distillers simply set up illegal stills.

1736

The Spirit Duties Act is passed and slaps a £50 annual license onto gin retailers, but still fails to lower the amount of distilling. The epidemic continues.

1743

On average, every eighth house in London sells spirits. Gin is now so widespread that it is sold in prisons, barbershops and brothels.



What was it?

For three decades in the first half of the 18th century, a wave of drunkenness swept over London. The tipple of choice was gin, brought back by soldiers who had been fighting abroad in the Thirty Years' War. Consuming the strong spirit became a way for Londoners to remove themselves from the grim reality of workhouse life and, on average, citizens both adult and child were consuming half a pint of the booze every week.

The drink's popularity was greatly helped by Britain's continued rivalry with the French, whose preferred tipple was brandy. Another factor contributing to it becoming so widespread was that gin could be distilled on the cheap, which meant that it was readily available and reasonably priced for even the lowest classes. The drink also became immensely popular with women, who in the past had rarely ventured into alehouses and taverns to drink beer, which was very much seen as a male-dominated pastime. 50.9 million litres of spirits were being consumed every year in the capital, and 'Mother Gin' went from being a symbol of sophistication to a catalyst for social and economic disintegration.

What were the consequences?

When it became apparent there was a problem, the British government attempted to regulate the out-of-control Londoners. After the failure of the 1729 and 1731 Gin Acts, another was passed in 1736 that adjusted the liquor's sale price to a minimum of 20 shillings per gallon (4.5 litres). The response was wholly negative, and alcohol-fuelled riots spread across London. The combination of lax policing plus parliament's attention being focused on the War of the Austrian Succession meant the efforts were a failure. The situation was eventually remedied in 1751 when a felonies committee was set up to tackle the adverse effect that gin drinking was having on crime in the capital. Another act was ratified that was this time successful, and its firm controls on distilling had a huge effect, with gin consumption falling from 38 million litres a year in 1751 to 9.5 million in 1760.

Who was involved?

William of Orange

1650-1702

William III imported gin from the Netherlands and it became the first distilled drink to be widespread in Britain.

Henry Pelham

1694-1754

The third prime minister of Britain, Pelham led a reform-minded cabinet that ended the craze with the passing the 1751 Gin Act.

William Hogarth

1697-1764

The painter is perhaps best known for his 1751 work *Gin Lane*, which depicted the drunken chaos in the streets of London.

1747

Drinking gin is now seen as a political statement against the government as the working class believe they are being targeted by the upper classes.

1751

The government eventually gets it right when the final Gin Act is passed, and with the help of a series of subsequent bad harvests, the craze ends.

© Alamy

NO HOLDS BARRED

The blood-splattered truth behind Britain's underground fight club that attracted crowds of thousands – including kings and prime ministers – even after it was outlawed

Written by Paul Edwards and Robert Lock

On 17 April 1860, boxing's first-ever 'world title' match took place in a field near the small town of Farnborough, Hampshire. Billed as the 'fight of the century', the bout was between all-American champ John Heenan and England's reigning champion Tom Sayers.

The greatest of his generation, at 1.7 metres (5 foot 8 inches) tall and weighing 67 kilograms (147 pounds), Sayers had managed to punch his way up into the heavyweight division. Here he demolished his lumbering opponents through a combination of incredible skill and tenacity. However, that was in the 1850s, and 'Brighton Titch,' as Sayers was nicknamed, was now 33 – old even by modern boxing standards. In contrast, Heenan was in his mid-twenties and at the height of his powers. He was about 1.9 metres (6 feet, 2 inches) and 43 kilograms (195 pounds), with an apparently lethal left hook. Known as the 'Benicia Boy,' Heenan grew up in New York State, but learned to fight in California, where he worked as an 'enforcer' for a San Francisco gang, before taking up the sport. Still, Heenan's training had been sporadic – unlike Sayers – and he didn't have the old pro's experience to fall back on.

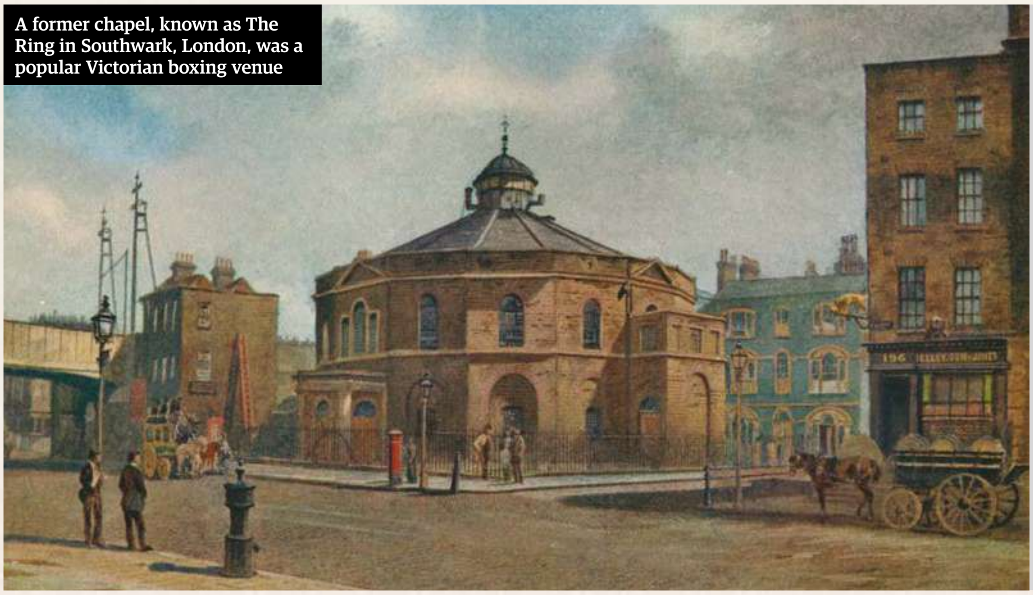
The title fight gripped the imagination on both sides of the Atlantic. As Harper's Weekly put it: "The bulk of the people in England and America are heart and soul engrossed in a fight compared to which a Spanish bull-bait is but a mild and diverting pastime." Meanwhile, in Britain, the Manchester Guardian observed that "no pugilistic contest ever decided has excited so great an interest, both in this and other countries."

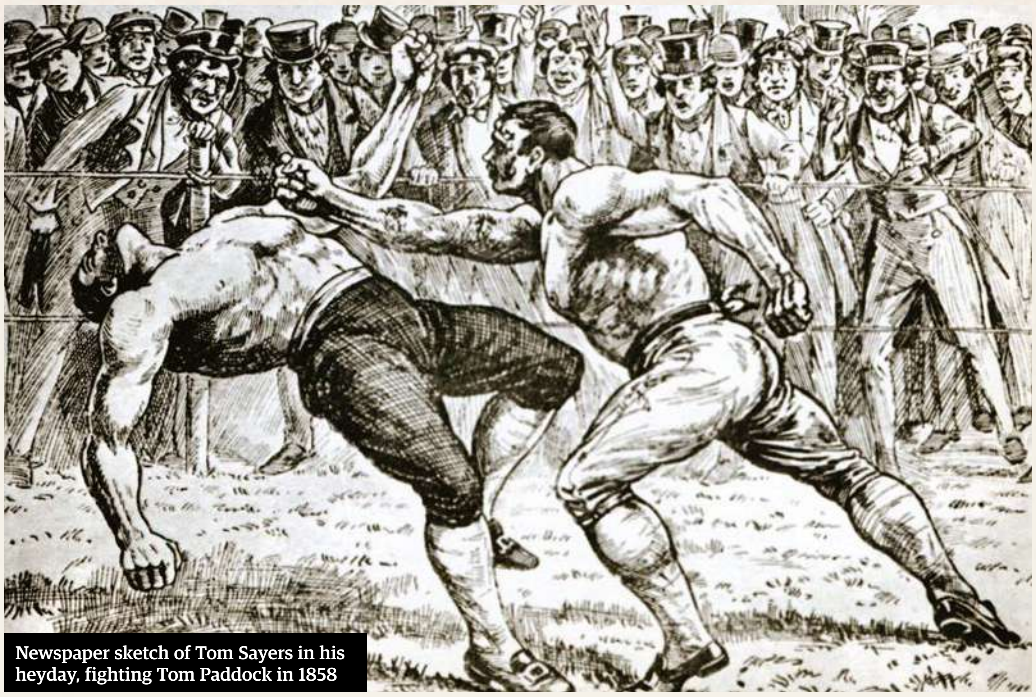
When the two men were called to the 'scratch' at 7.29am, you couldn't see the green grass of the field for the packed crowd that filled it. The two fighters stood in the middle of a small, roped-off area, stripped down to their waists, but they didn't don gloves – this was a bare-knuckle battle. Both gladiators tore strips out of each other early on: Sayers was forced to fight one-handed when he injured his right arm, while Heenan was half blinded due to a swollen eye. Nonetheless, the pair duked it out for a staggering 42 rounds. Each severely bloodied and battered, they fought tit for tat for two hours and 27 minutes. However, before either champion could land a winning blow, the police arrived, wielding their truncheons, to stop the fight.

Bare-knuckle boxing was illegal, as it had been since it gained popularity in the Georgian Era. However, the fights were regulated by the semi-respectable British Pugilists' Protective Association, reported on in the sport section of newspapers, and drew large crowds, including the great and good. The Heenan vs Sayers clash has been heavily mythologised: various stories claim Parliament shortened its hours so that Prime Minister Lord Palmerston could attend, that novelists Charles Dickens and William Thackeray were both forced to flee the police along with the rest of the audience, while Queen Victoria sat in her palace waiting for news of the result. So how did bare-knuckle boxing come to gain such an allure in the British imagination, and why then did it disappear?

Birth of Boxiana

The first recorded prize fight in Britain took place in January 1681, with regular matches being staged at the Royal Theatre in London by 1698. However, it is perhaps too generous to call these clashes 'sport'. While we might consider the


A former chapel, known as The Ring in Southwark, London, was a popular Victorian boxing venue



Newspaper sketch of Tom Sayers in his heyday, fighting Tom Paddock in 1858

> “Various stories claim Parliament shortened its hours so Lord Palmerston could attend”

Sayers and Heenan bout ultra-violent by modern standards, they at least followed set rules. During and leading up to the 18th century, the only aim was that you had to defeat your opponent - by any means necessary. Wrestling was allowed, so a man could grab and throw his opponent, then jump on and beat him while he was down. Fists were the primary weapon, but fighters would also wield swords, cudgels or quarterstaffs. Outside of the more sophisticated theatres, they would often face each other in an ill-defined ring formed by the crowd, which would be constantly moving as eager fans pressed in or stepped back to avoid being hit. The pair would beat each other to the point where either of them could no longer carry on. The only aspects that we would really recognise - beyond the fighters - was that there was an umpire to adjudicate on who won if both contenders were badly beaten, and that each man had a second, what we would call a cornerman today, who could throw in the towel for their fighter to rescue them while forfeiting the match to the other man.

James Figg was England’s greatest champion in this era. Born in Oxfordshire around 1695, probably to a poor farming family, Figg is said to only have lost one fight in a career that encompassed over 270 fights. Figg claimed he only lost because he was ill, and indeed he defeated the victor, Ned Sutton, in a rematch. Figg was even considered famous enough to be painted by William Hogarth on trading cards.

However, Figg got ahead in this anything-goes age because he was technically skilled. The Marquis de Bretagne noted that Figg, “handles a broad sword [sic] with the greatest dexterity of any man alive.” By 1714, Figg had moved to London to study with the Company of Masters of the Science of Defence, a guild dating back to Tudor times that trained members to fight proficiently with rapier, quarterstaff and, of course, broadsword. Figg qualified as a ‘master’ in under a year. While training, Figg also fought at a fair in Southwark. He would lure crowds to his booth by declaring: “Here I am, Jemmy Figg from Thame - I will fight any man in England!”

In 1719, Figg opened an ‘academy of arms’ just off Oxford Street. Here, he taught pupils - from aspiring professional prize fighters to gentlemen about town - new techniques, adapting what he knew from the art of swordplay for boxing, including how to block and cross-punch.

While Figg raised the quality of the sport, it was one of his students, Jack Broughton, who laid down the rules. Like Figg, he fought at a fairground, but was profoundly affected when he accidentally killed his opponent, George Stephenson, in 1741. When Stephenson - who was another student of Figg’s - fell and didn’t get up, Broughton is said to have cried, “Good God. What have I done? I’ve killed him. So help me God, I’ll never fight again.”

He didn’t keep to this oath, but two years later he opened Broughton’s Amphitheatre and changed

FIRST RULES OF FIGHT CLUB

Jack Broughton’s dos and don’ts guided bareknuckle boxing for over a century

✓ Do

Come to scratch

Each boxer had to come to the centre of the ring for the fight to legally continue. If a boxer could not make the scratch under his own efforts, it was quite acceptable for his seconds to drag him there for him to be able to carry on.

The battle begins

No one could be in the ring except the fighter’s seconds and the referee. Usually each fighter would have two seconds who stayed in the ring with him at all times, so at each bout there would be, including the fighters, eight or nine people.

It’s a knockout

There were disputes as to how long a man should stay on the floor to declare his opponent the winner. From the knockdown, his ‘seconds’ had 30 seconds to again drag him to his corner and prepare him for the next round.

In the by-battles

The winning fighter should be given two thirds of the money, which would be publicly divided up on stage. This arrangement was acceptable to all parties, but some had side bets that were paid out privately after the fight.

Get it right

Show some humility and understanding in the way in which a boxer wins or loses a fight. It’s not always enough to turn a back on an opponent, and in exceptional circumstances the winner may wish to donate some of his purse to the loser.

✗ Don’t

Keep it clean

Once a man is down, it will not be lawful for one man to strike the other. Gouging will not be acceptable, but to grab a fighter by the throat or throw him to the ground is within the rules, though once he is there kicking is prohibited.

Use your feet

Under the Broughton Rules, feet were now strictly for standing on and not used to further injure an opponent, whether he was upright or knocked down. There will be no heavy or spiked objects within the shoe to cause unnecessary harm to the opponent.

Use your head

Head-butting prior to 1743 was an accepted practice, but times were changing, and this manoeuvre was becoming more and more unpopular. Spectators were looking for skill with the fists, not the head. The fight game was progressing in the right direction.

Holding the ropes

Holding the ropes was used to get more momentum from the body when assaulting the opponent. This, coupled with the use of resin on the hands to ensure better grip, was also outlawed and frowned upon from spectators.

Do not bite

Biting was commonplace during fights, and could inflict serious clinical issues to the recipient. This was quite rightly outlawed, as was the use of holding stones in the fists to produce more power in the punch. The fists at the end of a fight would be broken and difficult to open.

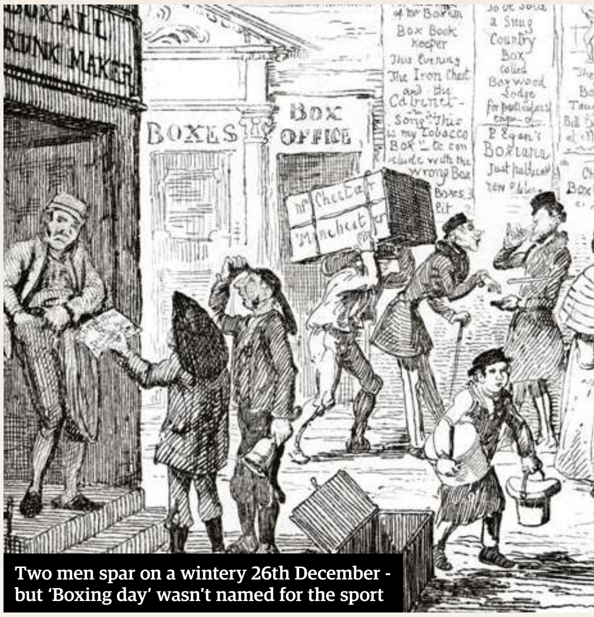
boxing forever. The new proprietor outlined seven rules, which he taught to his students and insisted upon being followed in every fight. These still allowed wrestling moves and even hair-pulling, but the weapons were removed and contenders were forbidden to hit a man when he was down or when he was on his knees. Broughton also insisted that a "square of a yard" be chalked in the middle of the stage; when a man was knocked down, he would have half a minute to return to the mark with the help of his second, or be declared defeated. While he only intended to govern bouts taking place in his own ring, the Broughton Rules, as they became known, were quickly adopted by other venues and continued to guide the sport for the next 100 years.

Regency Royal Rumble

In 1750, an Act of Parliament reaffirmed that prize fighting was illegal. The courts would charge contenders with affray or assault, while spectators ran the risk of being classified as disorderly assemblies. The law continued to be widely flouted, but its reiteration may have had something to do with the temporary decline in interest among the gentry. The sport was also beset by corruption at this time, with fight after fight being thrown. Jack Slack, a savage fighter and grandson of James Figg, is credited with being the first known person to fix a fight. He is believed to have paid off better fighters to lose in other matches to stop top contenders challenging his title. After losing it anyway to William Stevens in 1760, Slacks then paid Stevens to take a fall against his protege, George Meggs.

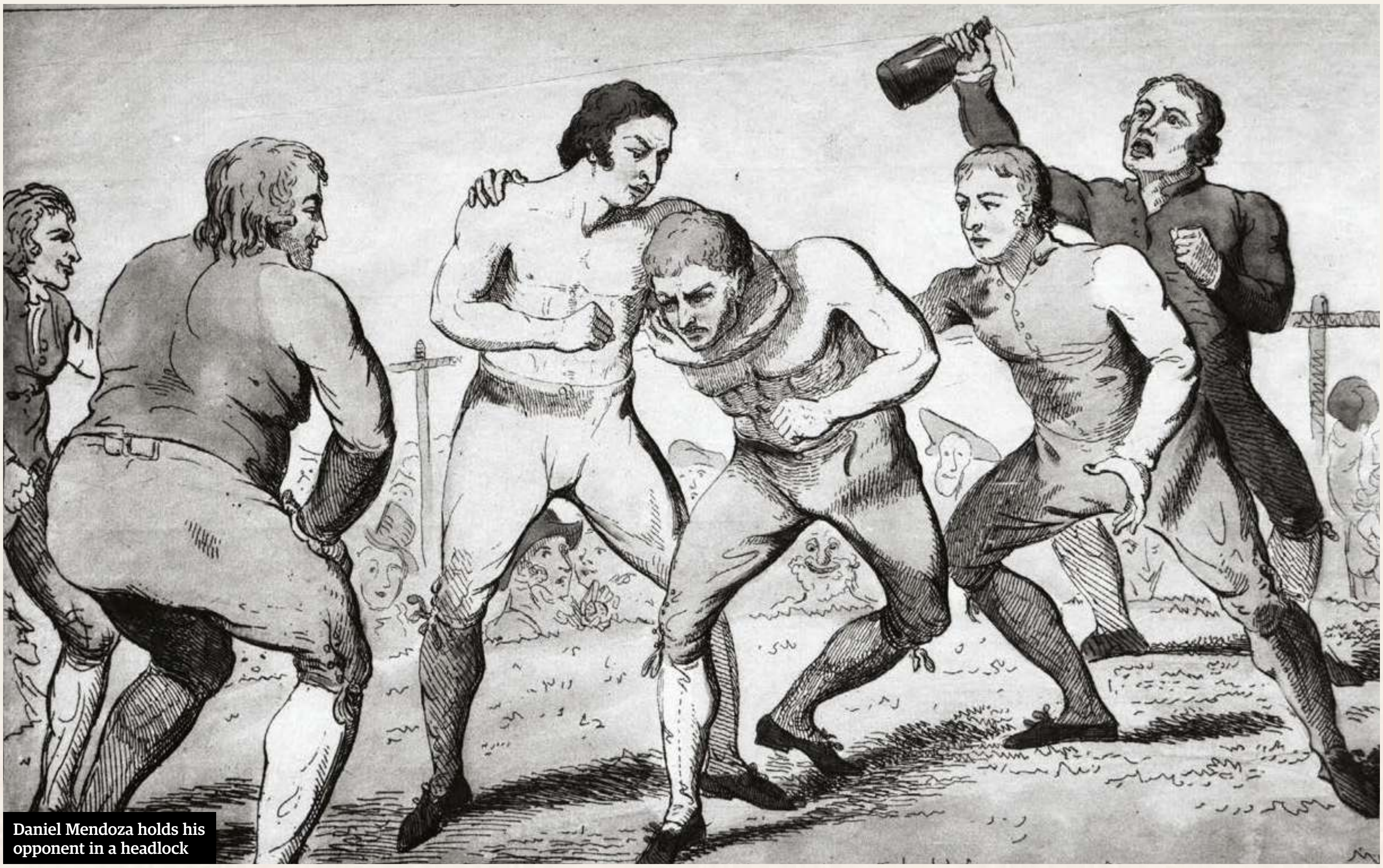
This downturn continued for 30 years until someone came along who could bet on a fight without fear of the law or loss of earnings: the Prince of Wales. The future George IV attended a number of bare-knuckle-boxing matches between 1786 and 1788. Most notably, he watched 'Gentleman' John Jackson's victory over William Futrell on 9 July 1788. With such a prominent figure holding court ringside, 'the Fancy' – as prize fighters called the upper classes – soon came flocking back.

Based on his nickname, it's perhaps unsurprising that the aforementioned 'Gentleman' Jackson helped legitimise the sport. Originally from a fairly well-to-do family, Jackson ran

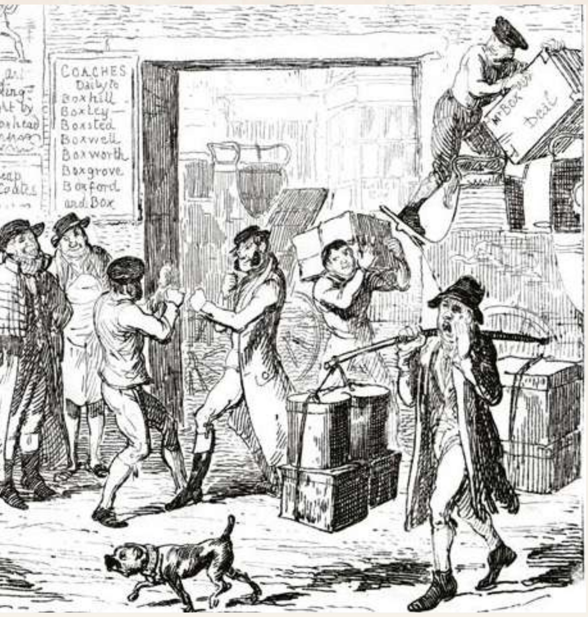


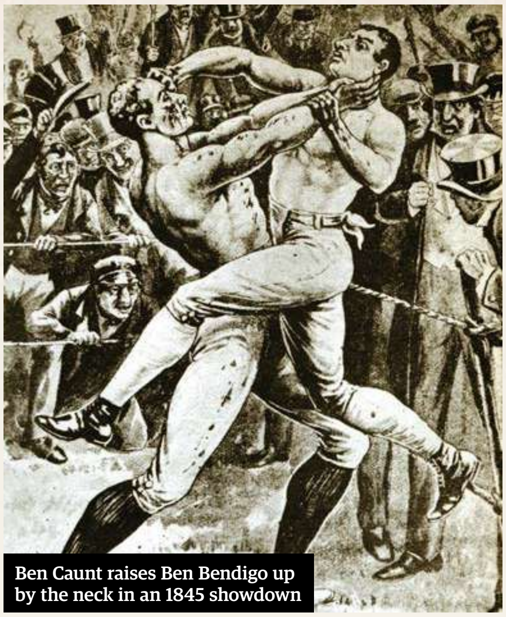
Two men spar on a wintery 26th December - but 'Boxing day' wasn't named for the sport

> "The Broughton Rules, as they became known, were quickly adoped by venues"



Daniel Mendoza holds his opponent in a headlock




Ben Caunt raises Ben Bendigo up by the neck in an 1845 showdown

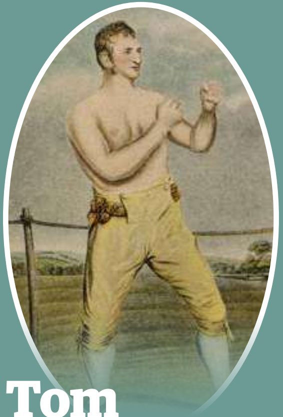
a boxing academy for gentry, most notably including the poet Lord Byron among his students. For George IV's coronation, Jackson was asked to assemble guards to keep order, and chose 18 prize fighters.

However, while these fighters won over the nobility, in London's East End, a Jewish fighter of Portuguese descent named Daniel Mendoza pioneered a crucial new technique. Up until this time, boxers had relied on stinging like a bee, not floating like a butterfly. Only 1.7 metres (5 feet 7 inches) tall and weighing 72.5 kilograms (160 pounds), the slight fighter was the first to emphasise rapid, rather than hard, punching, as well as thinking seriously about his footwork so that he could win through speed rather than just brute strength.

With the sport at all-time high, in 1812, journalist Pierce Egan went as far to claim boxing defined British identity. In his book *Boxiana*, Egan wrote that without it the national character might "act too refined and the thorough-bred bulldog degenerate into the whining puppy! Not for the British the long knives of the Dutch, Italian stilettos or French or German sticks and stones - in England the fist only is used [...] As a national trait we feel no hesitation in declaring that it is wholly British!" We can perhaps chalk some of this nationalism up to the fact that Egan was writing during the Napoleonic War, but boxing's hold upon the British imagination is evidenced in the many idioms taken from the sport that entered the English language during this period. Phrases such as 'start from scratch' (to start over from the beginning), and 'not up to the mark' (not up to the necessary level) may refer to the line that was scratched in the dirt to divide the ring. It's said

TOP 5 PRIZE FIGHTERS

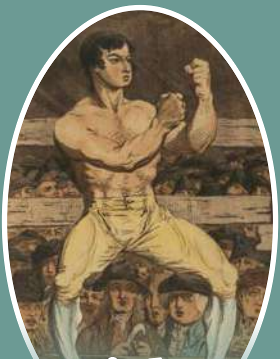
These boxers, without doubt, were the real superstars of their day



Tom Cribb

8 July 1781 – 11 May 1848

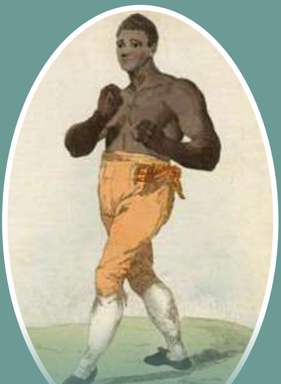
Born in Bristol to a coal worker father, Tom Cribbs began his career in 1805. It may be debatable whether he would have gained as much prominence if it were not for his two fights against the 'Black American', Tom Molineaux. His defining bout was the Molineaux rematch of 1811 in front of 20,000 fight fans, such was the popularity of the sport. He's still much loved in his home city of Bristol.



Daniel Mendoza

5 July 1764 – 3 September 1836

Dan was the first Jewish champion of England, and possibly the world, depending on how we interpret his fights. He took boxing to another level with his skill, style and speed. He abandoned the wrestling moves and worked on the scientific approach to all his fights. Not the biggest of fighters, he readily took on - and beat - opponents several stone heavier than himself.



Tom Molineaux

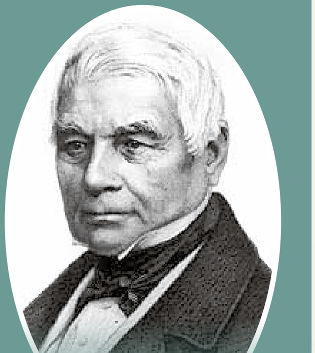
1784 – 4 August, 1818

Molineaux's exact date of birth is unknown, because he was born a slave on a Virginia plantation. However, he became known for fighting other slaves there, and after victory upon victory he was granted his freedom. Two very notable fights against Tom Cribb in 1810 and 1811 at Thistleton Gap in the East Midlands saw 20,000 people witness his defeat of Tom Cribb. He died in Galway in 1818.

William Perry

21 March 1819 – 18 January 1881

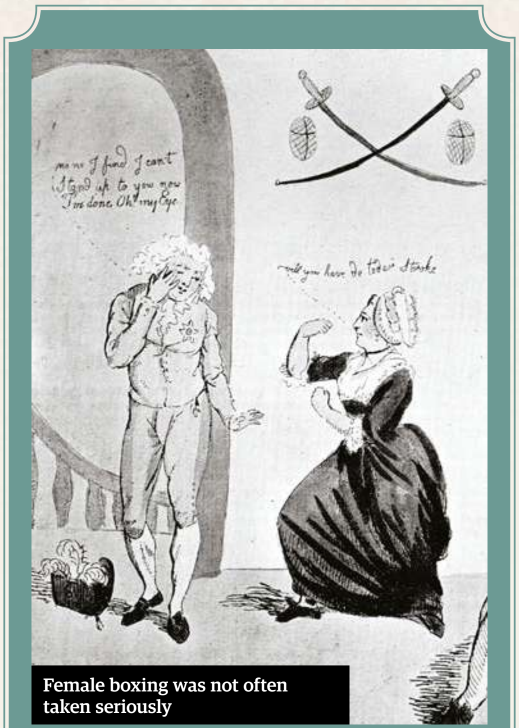
Known as the 'Tipton Slasher', he became Heavyweight Champion of England in 1850 after beating Tom Paddock. Soon after this, he suffered a controversial defeat to Henry Broome on a referee's decision. Later he regained the coveted title, before eventually losing it to Tom Sayers in 1857. He was born with a severe deformity in his left leg that impacted his walk, which led some people to refer to him as 'K Legs'.



John Gully

21 August 1783 – 9 March 1863

Another Bristolian, in his early years he was imprisoned in a debtor's institution, but later became a prize fighter. The Duke of Clarence (later King William IV) witnessed his brutal 64-round fight against Henry Pearce in 1805. In the latter half of his life, he was an entrepreneur and race horse owner. He also became a politician, and sat in the House of Commons as the MP for Pontefract from 1832 to 1837.


no no I find I can't
Stand up to you now
I'm done Oh! my Eye
will you have de t'other Stroke

Female boxing was not often taken seriously

BIRTH OF WOMEN'S BOXING

Very little is known about women's boxing during the 19th century, perhaps because it was seen as a sideshow and not reflective of the way men went about their fights. Some of these tough women fought bare chested and, by some illogical reasoning, wore long dresses down to the floor to hide their modesty. Many prostitutes also took part in the matches. Usually the women would fight with a coin in each hand, and the first to drop it would be deemed the loser.

The first recorded fight between two females took place in 1722 near what is now, Oxford Circus between Elizabeth Wilkinson and Martha Jones. Wilkinson won the contest and was considered to be the first female champion, and she fought fully clothed, so the audience would take her more seriously. Wilkinson would have been born around 1700, but the details of her birth cannot be proved with any certainty. However, it seems she became a very formidable fighter not only with her fists, but also with a dagger, cudgel and quarterstaff. Elizabeth went on to marry a pugilist named Stokes, who fought in James Figg's boxing booth and eventually set up her own booth to rival Figg's.

In 1722 she handed out a challenge to Hannah Hyfield of Newgate Market. It was usual for women's fights to last between 20 minutes and an hour, and Elizabeth's strength and fitness far exceeded the low expectations of female stamina at the time. Elizabeth Wilkinson Stokes, as she became known, had a close rival in Mary Welsh (who, ironically, was Irish).

The two women fought, along with their husbands, forming 'mixed-doubled' pairs. From all accounts it seems Welsh won the battle, although this cannot be proven with any certainty.

the term 'draw', meaning a tied score, derives from the stakes that held the rope surrounding the ring; when the match was over, the stakes were 'drawn' out from the ground. These stakes might also be the basis behind the monetary meaning of stakes. In early prize fights, a bag of money, which would go to the winner of the bout, was hung from one of the stakes – thus high stakes and stake money.

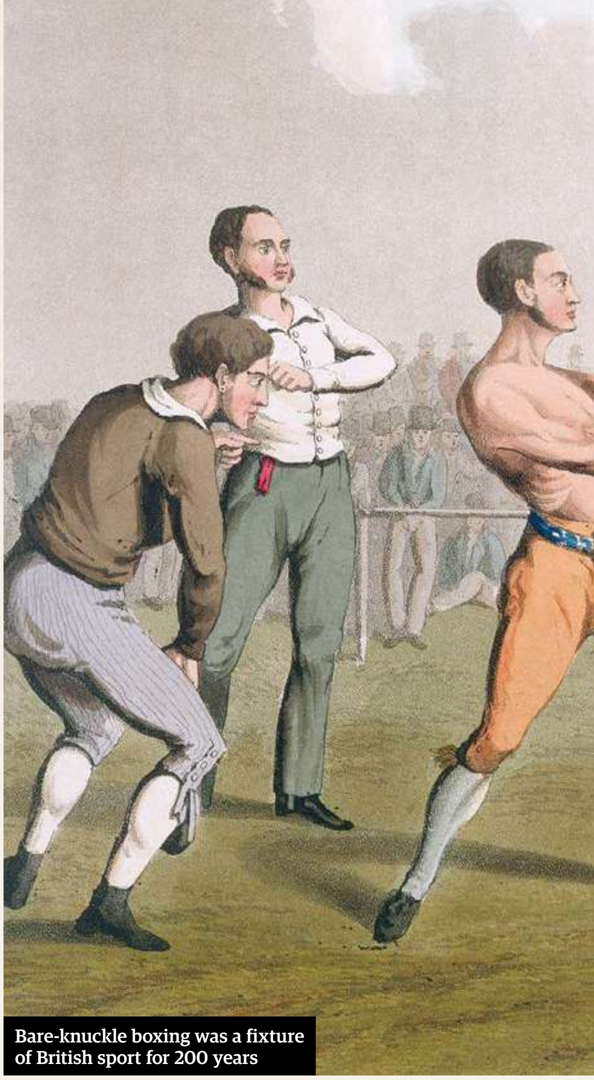
The Regency era (1811-20) proved to be a golden age for bare-knuckle boxing, producing a constellation of superstars, including Tom Belcher, Tom Cribb, John Gully, and Bill Richmond – another former slave who spent most of his career in Britain. However, it was the year of Queen Victoria's coronation, 1838, that saw bare-knuckle boxing take a step forward. The London Prize Ring rules – also called the London Rules for brevity – were quickly adopted on both sides of the Atlantic, introducing a larger 7.3-metre (24-foot) ring enclosed by rope, declaring that fallen fighters should be able to return to the mark unaided or forfeit the match, and forbid butting, gouging, hitting below the waist and kicking as fouls.

KO in the UK

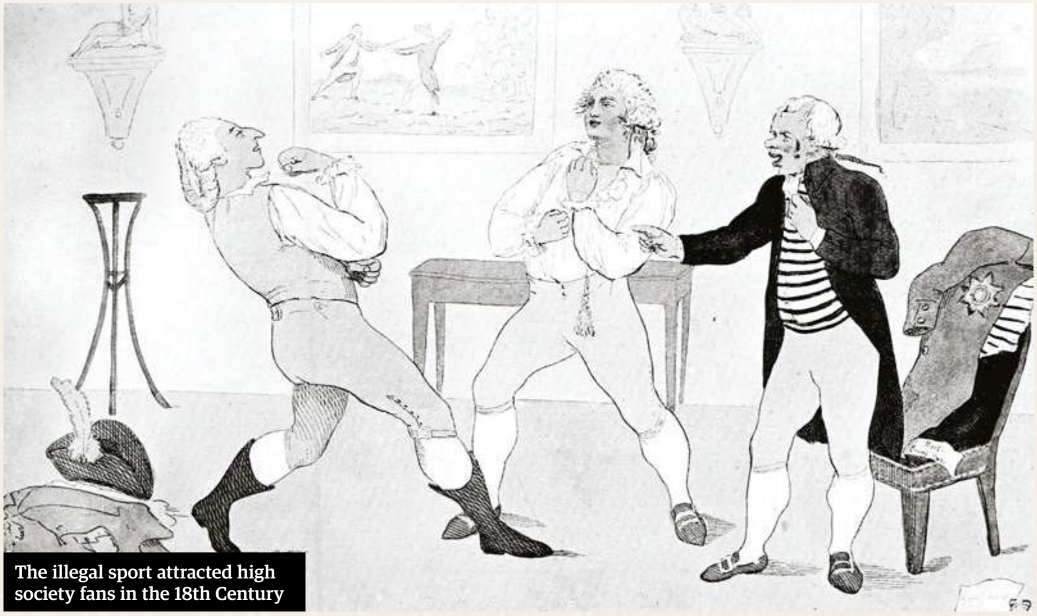
After the police interrupted Sayers and Heenan's fight for the world title in 1860, there was a dispute over who actually won. Officially, the referee declared it a draw, but Heenan demanded a rematch. This never happened, instead the pair both received a championship belt and split the 'purse' of £400 – over £20,000 in today's money. When Heenan returned to the United States he was given a hero's welcome anyway and 50,000 New Yorkers came out to welcome him.

Meanwhile, Sayers fans raised £3,000 so that the veteran fighter could retire. However, the next five years didn't go well for him. Sayers divorced and had several other acrimonious break-ups, suffered from diabetes and tuberculosis, made a failed investment in a circus, and developed a drinking problem. He died living above a shop on Camden High Street at the age of 39. What was left of Sayers' still sizeable fortune was spent on an extravagant funeral. Some 100,000 people took part in his procession as Sayer's loyal mastiff dog, Lion, wearing a crepe ruff, led his coffin to Highgate Cemetery.

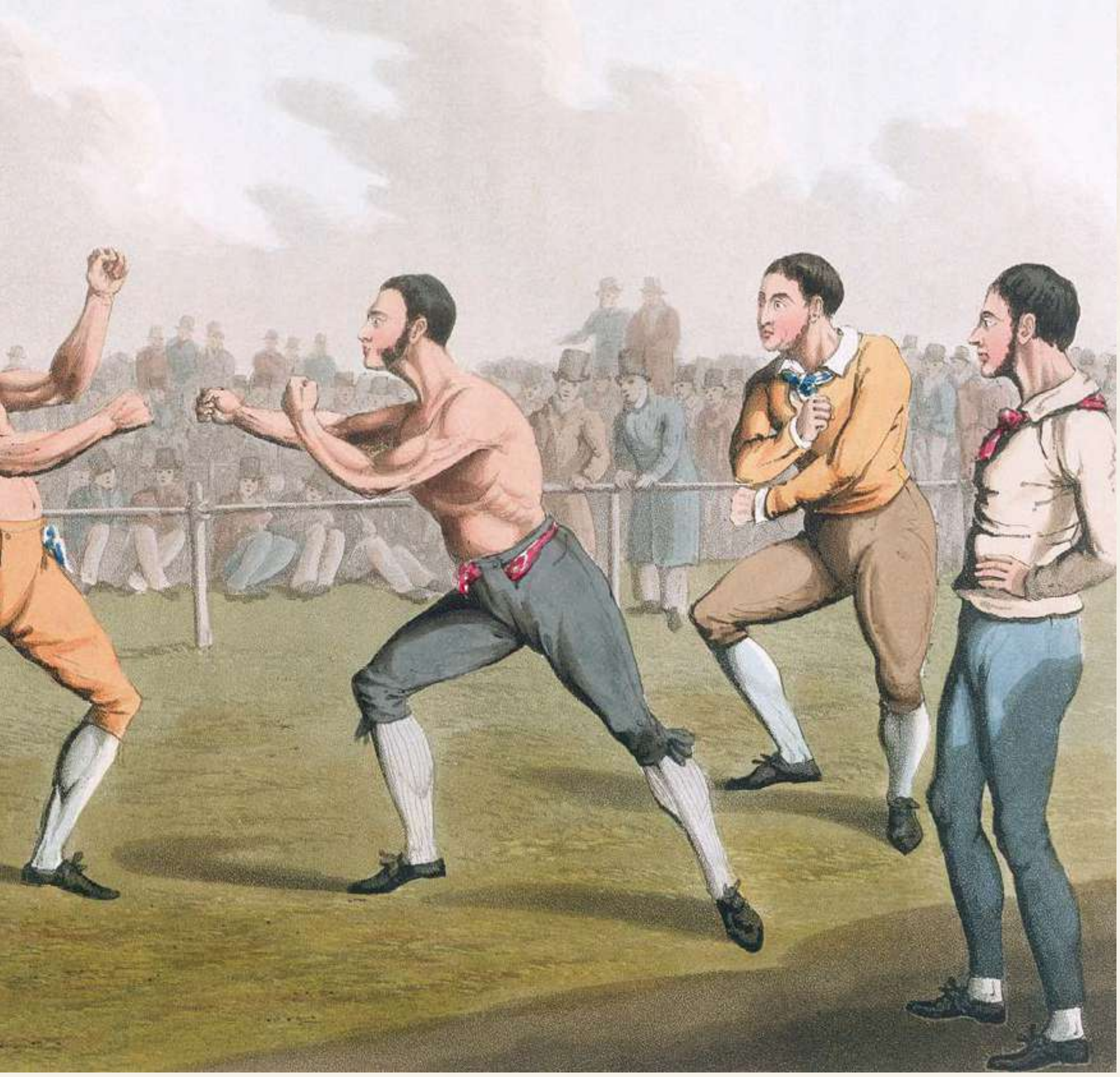
In some ways, the fates of the two men signalled the shift in bare-knuckle boxing's fortunes in the two countries. Corruption once again emerged in the British sport, with more fights being rigged. Meanwhile, Victorian moralists decried bare-knuckle boxing for its violence.



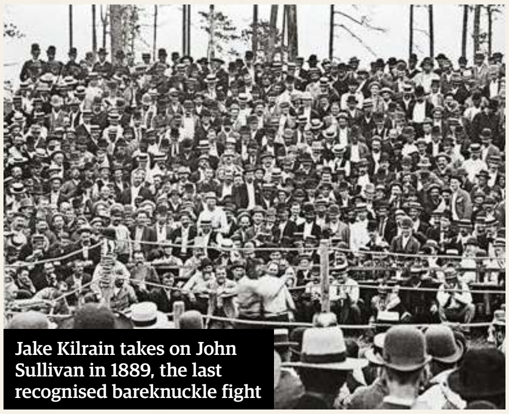
Bare-knuckle boxing was a fixture of British sport for 200 years



The illegal sport attracted high society fans in the 18th Century



Padded gloves were introduced as a safety measure under the 1867 Queensberry Rules



Jake Kilrain takes on John Sullivan in 1889, the last recognised bareknuckle fight

Seizing on growing popular opinion, Parliament increasingly penalised the game in such a way that every fight fan or fighter would be arrested and dealt with accordingly if caught in the act of promoting or supporting a prize fight.

After Sayer, Britain still produced a few acclaimed bruisers, most notably Tom King and Jem Mace. Facing growing persecution at home and the promise of greater cash prizes abroad, these fighters increasingly went to the US. The sport was illegal there too, but the law varied state by state, and in some places it was quite lax. Mace courted the fame the sport brought in the US, where he continued to fight until he was well into his 60s.

In 1882, rising Boston talent John L Sullivan beat Irish-born Paddy Ryan in a highly publicised bout in Mississippi City. The New York Times claimed some $300,000 was wagered across America on the fight, while telegraph circuits surged to deliver blow-by-blow accounts to eager fans that filled the streets. At last, it seemed America had embraced prize fighting and the spiritual home of the sport had finally moved across the Atlantic. However, at this point the sport's days were numbered all around the world.

In 1867, the Marquess of Queensberry endorsed a new set of rules for boxing. Though actually written by a Welsh sportsman named John Graham Chambers, the most important detail of the Queensberry Rules was the biggest change to the sport since Jack Broughton laid down the law in 1743. It demanded that all fighters wear padded boxing gloves.

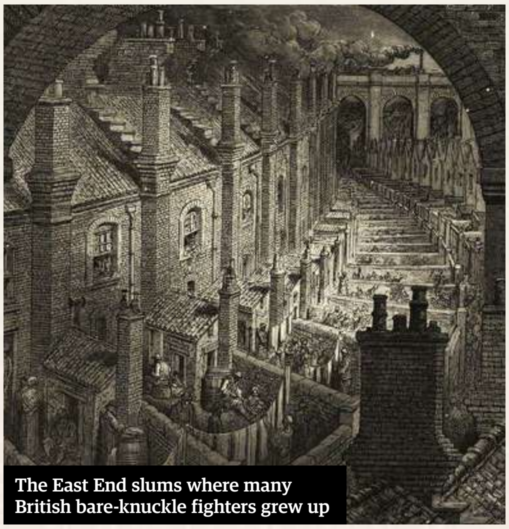
> “In some way, the fates of two men signalled the shift in bare-knuckle boxing's fortunes”

While bare-knuckle fighting didn't end overnight, Jem Mace was quick to see that the writing was on the wall. Changing his tactics, the former English heavyweight champion defeated the formidable Bill Davis in Virginia City, Nevada, under the Queensberry Rules in 1876. The last bare-knuckle fight took place on British soil in 1885 between champion Jem Smith and Jack Davis. Smith won easily, but few were there to witnessthe spectacle.

The Queensberry code came into force in the United States and Canada in the late 19th century, with the last recognised bare-knuckle encounter taking place on 8 July 1889, between Jake Kilrain and John L Sullivan. Fought using the London Rules, this contest ran until an incredible 76 rounds, when Kilrain's second threw in the sponge, saying his man would die if the bout went on any longer. With that, bare-knuckle boxing was served its final KO.

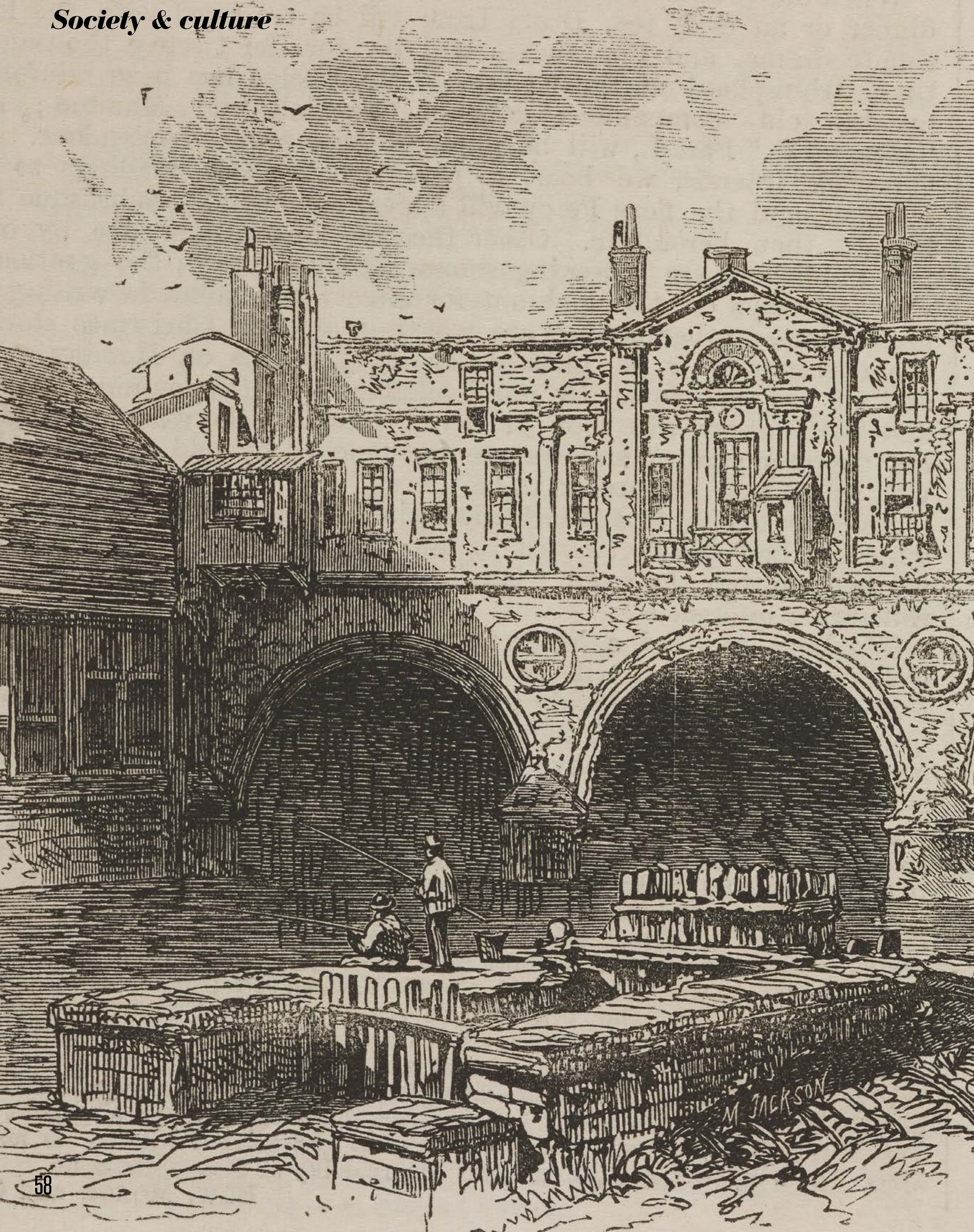
Or was it? That was the case until June 2018, when the first legal bare-knuckle boxing match was held in the US – almost 130 years since the last match. Arnold Adams and DJ Lindermann met for their showdown in the prairie city of Cheyenne, Wyoming. 2,000 fans crammed into the converted ice rink, and after a gruelling set, Arnold Adams won. Other states in the US are now looking to legalise the fights.

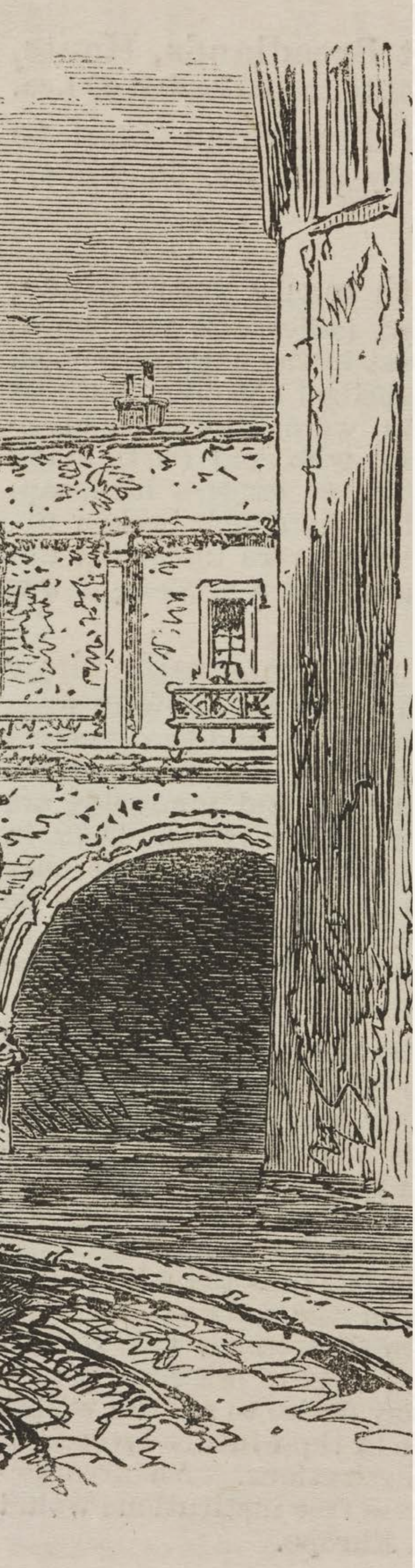
With bare-knuckle boxing poised to get back in the fighting ring once again, it is all the more important to recall the working-class origins of the bloody sport.



The East End slums where many British bare-knuckle fighters grew up

© Getty, Alamy


M JACKSON



BUILDING THE GEORGIAN ERA

From towering columns to vast domes, man-made lakes and gardens to get lost in, the Georgian era truly was a golden age for architecture

Written by Catherine Curzon

In the 18th century, more was definitely more, and nowhere was that more evident than in architecture. As France glittered in Rococo splendour, British architects turned to the classical world with its harmony of shape and form, creating beauty from a scientific balance of elements.

Men like Vanbrugh and Wren had created a Baroque world. At the beginning of the Georgian era, little initially changed. Eventually, however, those seeking to make their mark on the landscape began to experiment. Architects undertook a Grand Tour to Italy and Greece to study the classical worlds, bringing the clean lines of Rome and ancient Greece home with them. These architects were inspired by the work of their 16th century forerunner Andrea Palladio, who modelled his constructions on those of ancient Roman architect, Vitruvius. Known as Palladian, designers whose work echoed Palladio became the height of fashion.

In the hands of the architects who built Georgian Europe, geometry was the basis for designs that were as scientific as they were beautiful. Though their designs were based on mathematical precision, such celebrated architects as Robert Adam combined simple columns and domes into beautiful structures, drawing harmony from geometry. Symmetry and proportion were at the heart of the movement, with designs chosen not just because they looked good, but because they were structurally sound. These were not buildings built solely for beauty, but places in which engineering and logic combined to create a perfect balance of form and appearance. In the hands of a Georgian architect, rational systems of thought such as mathematics and geometry became a thing of beauty when applied to stone and marble.

This fashionable neoclassical style came at a price though and should you wish to exist in a world of Palladian splendour or Greek Revival smoothness, let alone the Rococo-inspired grandeur of the Gothic Revival, you could expect to pay handsomely for the privilege. Robert Adam's Brasted Place, for instance, ran vastly over budget and ended up costing a whopping £9,500 - over £1 million today. In the garden, meanwhile, Lancelot 'Capability' Brown received the equivalent of a cool £54 million for his extensive landscaping at Hampton Court.

These houses and gardens were meant to last and to this day, they lend a sprinkling of Georgian decadence to the land in which they sit.

The architects of an age

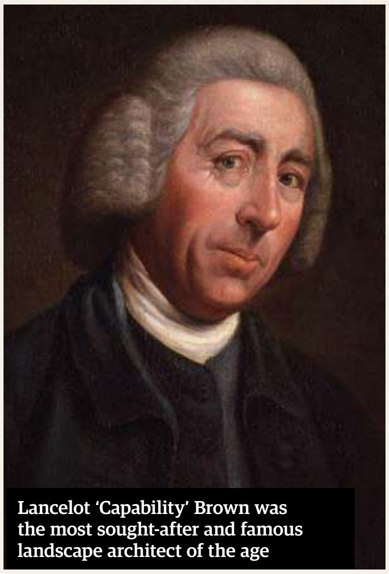
When it came to the fashionable world of the Georgians, these were the names in high demand

Lancelot 'Capability' Brown

1716-1783

Arguably the greatest landscape architect who ever lived, Capability Brown learned his craft as an under gardener at Stowe under the tutelage of William Kent. He rose swiftly through the ranks to become the most fashionable gardener in the land, known for a pioneering style that embraced naturalism and made use of rolling lawns and ornamental lakes to create a scene that appeared at first glance to come from nature itself, rather than the trained hand of Capability Brown.

Brown was known for the exceptional speed and quality of his work, as well as his illustrious clients. In addition to designing the grounds at such famed residences as Harewood House, Blenheim Palace and Chatsworth, he reached the pinnacle of his profession when he was appointed by King George III to fill the position of Master Gardener at Hampton Court Palace.


Lancelot 'Capability' Brown was the most sought-after and famous landscape architect of the age

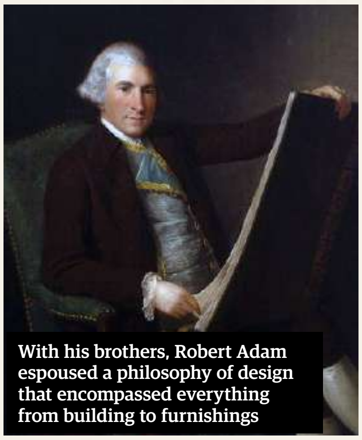
The Adam Brothers

1728-1792 *(Robert)*, 1721-1792 *(John)*, 1732-1794 *(James)*

The Adam brothers were a trio of Scottish neoclassical architects whose practice became one of the most sought-after in Georgian Britain. As the sons of architect William Adam, the three siblings knew a thing or two about design, and Robert and James enhanced their knowledge by undertaking a Grand Tour to Italy, leaving John, their elder brother, to run the family business.

On their return from their travels the brothers launched their unique vision on the fashionable world. Rather than simply design buildings, they instead advocated a harmony of architecture and interior, by which they would design everything from the smallest item of furniture to the house itself, ensuring a seamless integration between every aspect of the interior and exterior.

Robert and James both served as Architect of the King's Works in addition to their work on properties including the now-demolished Adelphi in London, Edinburgh Royal Exchange, and Kenwood House


With his brothers, Robert Adam espoused a philosophy of design that encompassed everything from building to furnishings

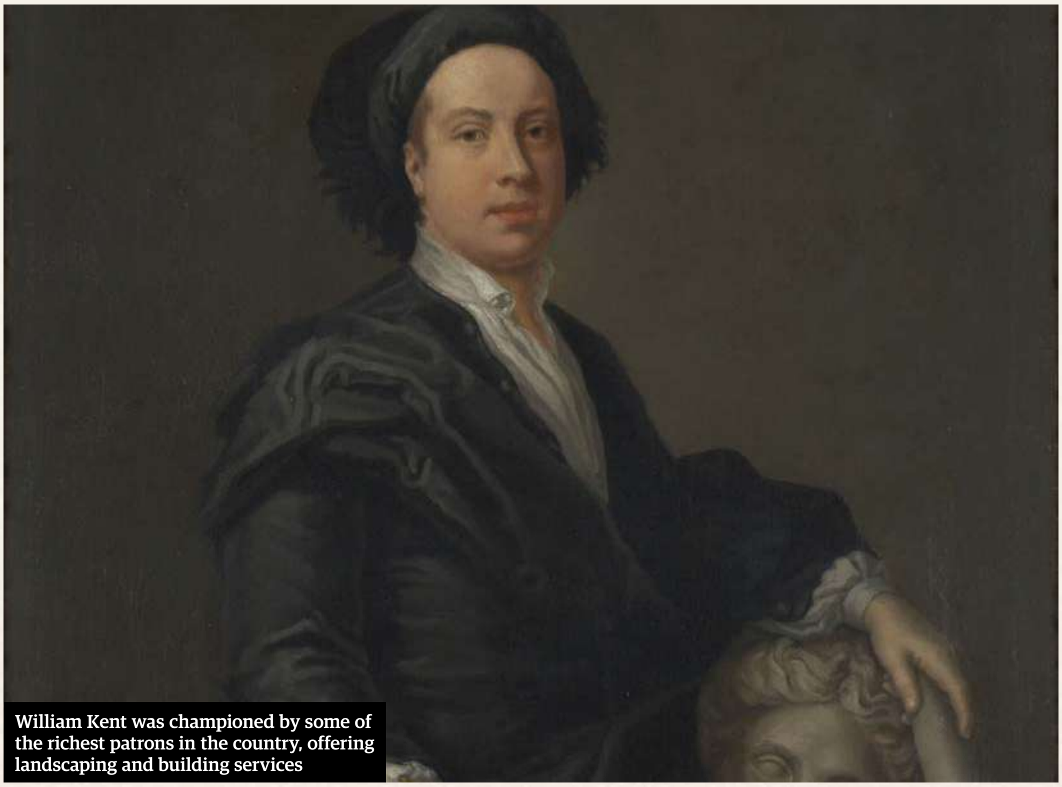
William Kent

1685-1748

William Kent brought the Palladian style of architecture to Britain and was among the first designers to focus on the natural style of landscaping that made Capability Brown's name. He was the quintessential triple threat as an architect, landscape architect, and even Principal Painter in Ordinary to George II.

Kent began his career as a sign painter and eventually graduated, via a tour of Italy, to taking commissions for some of the wealthiest families in England. He decorated the Kensington Palace staterooms and under the patronage of Richard Boyle, 3rd Earl of Burlington, discovered a talent for Palladian design. This, teamed with his skill for landscaping and interiors, meant that he really could provide the full package to his wealthy patrons.

Never one to rest on his laurels, as well as work at the likes of Holkham Hall and Hampton Court, Kent also created a magnificent barge for Frederick, Prince of Wales.


William Kent was championed by some of the richest patrons in the country, offering landscaping and building services

The stateliest of homes

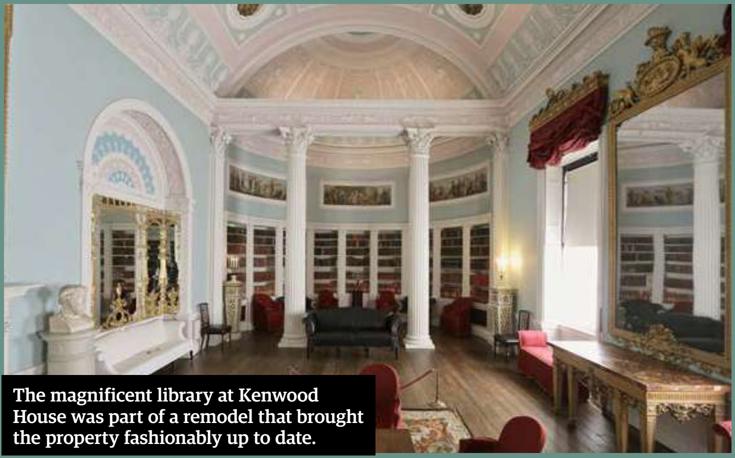
For the Georgians, there was no such thing as too much

Kenwood House

Hampstead *Robert Adam (remodelled)*

Built in the 1600s as Caen Wood House, Kenwood became one of the most fashionable addresses in England in 1754, when it was bought by the 1st Earl of Mansfield. Lord Mansfield employed Robert Adam to completely remodel the house, adding the opulent library and the portico, which is arguably Kenwood's most recognisable feature. Further remodelling over the years expended the already vast house and kept it at the forefront of architectural fashion.

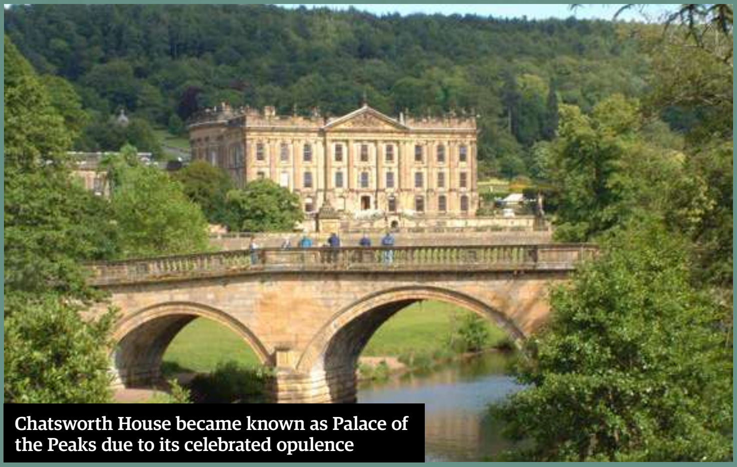
Sitting as it does on the edge of Hampstead Heath, Kenwood's ornate gardens were designed by Humphry Repton to contrast with the natural surroundings of the estate. Inside, it is home to one of most impressive collections of art ever assembled in Britain by a private collector.



The magnificent library at Kenwood House was part of a remodel that brought the property fashionably up to date.

Chatsworth House

Derbyshire *Jeffry Wyatville (remodelled)*



Chatsworth House became known as Palace of the Peaks due to its celebrated opulence

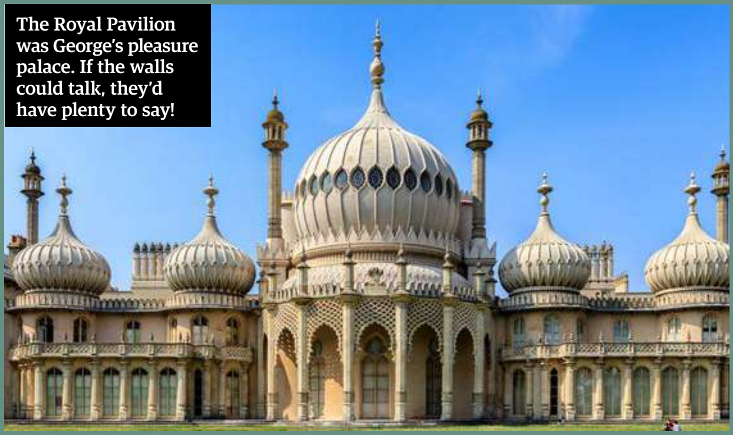
The history of Chatsworth House can be reached back to the 16th century, when Bess of Hardwick commissioned the first building on the site. After her death the estate was bought by William Cavendish, 1st Earl of Devonshire, and it became his family seat.

As the years passed architects, were brought in to overhaul Chatsworth House to ensure it remained current, but the most substantial remodelling was done by Jeffry Wyatville. Commissioned by the 6th Duke of Devonshire, Wyatville rebuilt the North Wing, doubling the size of Chatsworth.

Though it's partially open to the public, the Palace of the Peaks, as Chatsworth is known, is still the seat of the Duke of Devonshire today.

The Royal Pavilion

Brighton *John Nash*



The Royal Pavilion was George's pleasure palace. If the walls could talk, they'd have plenty to say!

When George, Prince of Wales, rented a Brighton farmhouse along the road from his future wife, Maria Fitzherbert, he fell in love with the town as well as the lady.

Never a man to scrimp on luxury, the Prince commissioned Henry Holland to build a Pavilion fit for a king, complete with vast stables. As the years passed and George became Prince Regent, his Brighton home began to seem a little shabby. He called in John Nash to completely remodel the Pavilion.

The Royal Pavilion is filled with Indian and Chinese design touches, lending a fashionable eastern exoticism to the south coast!

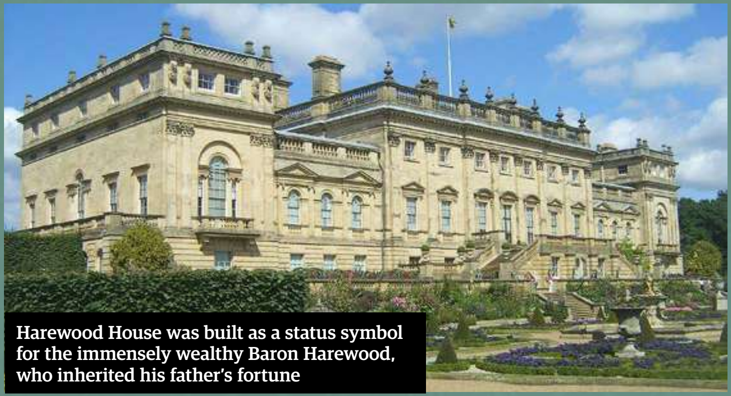
Harewood House

Leeds *John Carr and Robert Adam*

Edwin Lascelles, 1st Baron of Harewood, commissioned Yorkshire architect John Carr, to build a magnificent house on the estate owned by the baron's father, who had made his fortune as a customs collector, merchant and plantation owner in the West Indies.

Carr's vision for the house swiftly came to fruition. From the laying of the first stones to completion was a matter of just six years. While Carr worked on the construction, Robert Adam was hired to design the interior of Harewood House.

As he carried out his work, Adam also made some small alterations to the designs that Carr had worked to in order to create his trademark sense of harmony between the interior and exterior of the house.



Harewood House was built as a status symbol for the immensely wealthy Baron Harewood, who inherited his father's fortune

Glorious Georgian gardens

In Georgian Britain, the most beautiful houses weren't complete without gardens to match

Stourhead

Mere, Wiltshire *Henry Hoare II*

Thanks to Henry the Magnificent, the gardens at Stourhead transport visitors back into the classical world

Known by the affectionate nickname, Henry the Magnificent, Henry Hoare II designed the garden at Stourhead for his father, who owned the estate. Hoare was inspired by the work of the painter, Nicolas Poussin, to create a perfect landscape, which was intended to transport the visitor into classical Greece. Indeed, the path around the man-made lake was intended to be evocative of the descent into the underworld. As you circle the lake, you are invited to pause in the temples that surround it, each one telling the next chapter of Aeneas's mythological journey into the underworld.

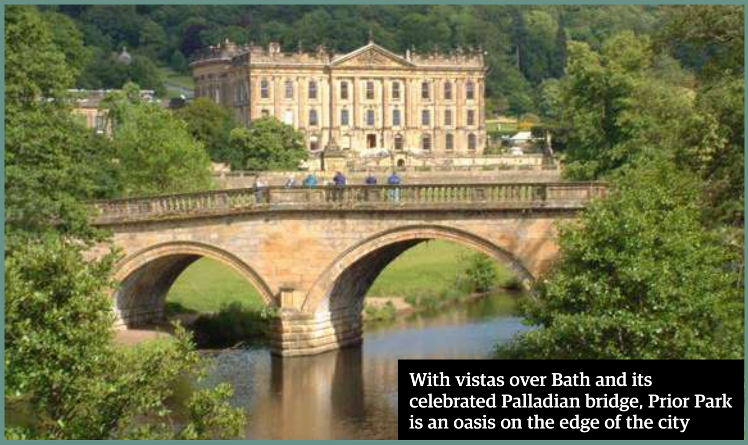
Hoare worked on his masterpiece for more than three decades and today, more than 200 years later, the garden is as stunning as ever.

Prior Park

Bath, Somerset *Alexander Pope and Capability Brown*

When entrepreneur Ralph Allen was designing the garden of his newly purchased land in a valley overlooking Bath, he turned to poet Alexander Pope for help. On what had once been a deer park and had long since reverted to agricultural land, the two men created a lush garden, filled with trees and ornamental ponds, still very much park of the natural landscape.

When Capability Brown joined the project, his influence created the very model of the English garden, adding exotic blooms and secluded, classical grottoes. A winding path passed through flowers and vegetable plots alike, taking the visitor around a serpentine lake and over its recently restored famous Palladian bridge, one of only three such structures in Great Britain.



With vistas over Bath and its celebrated Palladian bridge, Prior Park is an oasis on the edge of the city

Studley Royal Water Garden

North Yorkshire *John Aislabie*

Studley Royal Park is deservedly a World Heritage Site and contains one of the least-altered Georgian gardens in the British Isles.

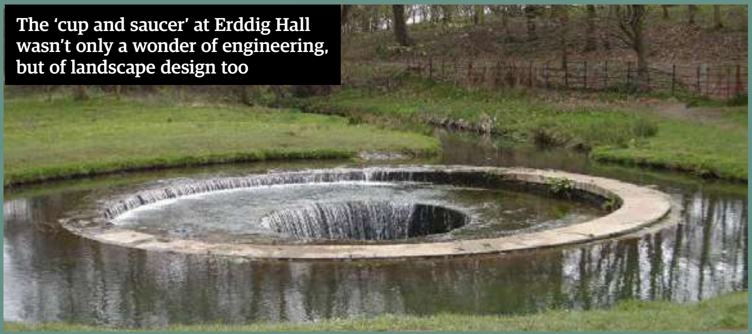
The garden was created by former Chancellor of the Exchequer, John Aislabie, who had retired to his Yorkshire estate to lick his wounds after the South Sea Bubble scandal ended his parliamentary career. Though an amateur, Aislabie and his son, William, created a water garden intended to stop visitors in their tracks with its geometric layout, ornamental lakes fed by canals, and follies including the classical Temple of Piety and a neo-Gothic castle.

The grounds culminate in a show-stopping vista across the landscape to the ruins of Fountain's Abbey, understandably nicknamed the Surprise View.

Remarkably, the breathtaking gardens at Studley were the labour of love, not of a landscape architect, but a disgraced politician

Erddig Hall

Wrexham, Wales *William Eames*



The 'cup and saucer' at Erddig Hall wasn't only a wonder of engineering, but of landscape design too

While Capability Brown focused on recreating the natural look, other landscape architects were designing far more formal gardens. One of the best surviving examples is William Eames' walled garden at Erddig Hall in Wales, which complemented the natural landscape that Eames designed and cultivated around it.

Eames transformed a bleak flood plane into a lush parkland, filled with blooms and water features. The most famous of the latter is undoubtedly the 'cup and saucer', a cascade powered by a hydraulic ram. Eames also worked with existing man-made features to enhance the natural landscape. He transformed the reins of 8th century earthworks into a lush avenue of trees, creating a walk that culminated in breathtaking views across the landscape.

Built for the public

The best in 18th century architecture isn't confined to homes and gardens

Somerset House was designed to be a place in which administrative offices could be gathered and Georgian Britain celebrated

Somerset House

London *William Chambers*

Built on the site of Somerset Place, a former royal residence, Somerset House was designed by William Chambers, Surveyor General of Works, to meet the call for a public building that would house offices from the Inland Revenue to the Lottery Office. It replaced a number of disparate offices scattered through the city.

Chambers received a generous annual salary of £2,000 for the work, which he began in 1775 and remained devoted to until his death 21 years later. Responsibility for the completion of Somerset House passed to James Wyatt, who oversaw the project to its end in 1801, though ornamentation work went on for nearly two more decades after that.

St Martin-in-the-Fields

London *James Gibbs*

Taking just two years to build, St Martin-in-the-Fields became a popular template for church designers

For the Georgians, even worship had to be done in style. Nowhere is this more evident than in the neo-classical columns and towering spire of St Martin-in-the-Fields.

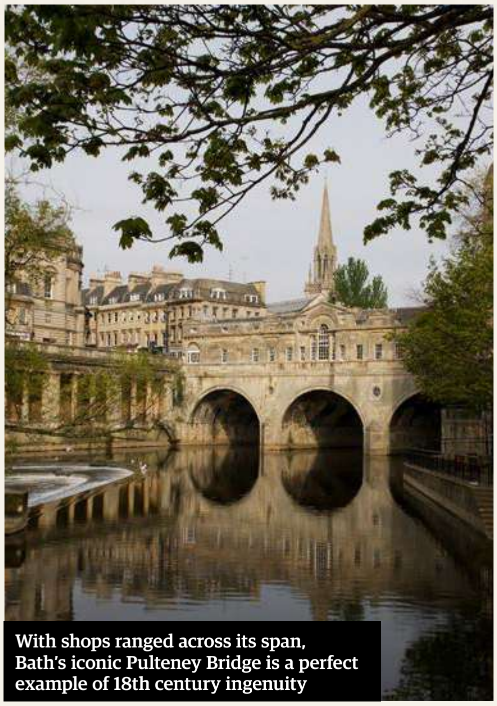
St Martin-in-the-Fields was built on a site that had been in use since Roman times. When the 17th century church fell into disrepair, James Gibbs was selected to design its replacement. Gibbs took his inspiration for the design from Sir Christopher Wren, an ecclesiastical master architect. Construction began early in 1722 and ended in December 1724. So popular was the design, that it was soon the inspiration for churches across the globe.

Pulteney Bridge

Bath, Somerset *Robert and James Adam*

Pulteney Bridge is one of the most iconic creations of Georgian England and is one of only four in the world to have shops ranged across both sides of its full span. The bridge was the creation of Robert and James Adam, who improved designs drawn up by Thomas Paty at the request William Johnstone, a wealthy MP who wanted to improve access to Bath from his rural estate.

Four years in the making, construction began in 1770 and the bridge was later widened, while extensive flood damage necessitated emergency repairs in 1800. The limestone bridge is in the Palladian style, complete with Doric columns and architectural features that call to mind the classical temples of the Grand Tour.


With shops ranged across its span, Bath's iconic Pulteney Bridge is a perfect example of 18th century ingenuity

The Piece Hall

Halifax, Yorkshire *Anonymous*

The designer behind the Piece Hall in Halifax remains a tantalising mystery, with candidates including John Hope, John Carr and Thomas Bradley. The building was intended to provide a place in which to sell worsted and woollen goods, allowing merchants and buyers to gather. Built at a cost of £12,000, the hall opened on 1 January 1779. It was an instant hit thanks to its elegant colonnades and well-proportioned rooms.

Listed in 1954, the Piece Hall escaped demolition in the 1970s. It was fully refurbished in the 21st century to become a hub of shopping and entertainment again.

After a chequered history, the Piece Hall is once again a gathering place for the people of Halifax

© Getty, Wiki

ROYAL SCANDAL AT KEW GARDENS

Peaceful and secluded, the history of Kew is indelibly entwined with the drama, feuding and madness of the monarchs of Great Britain

Written by Catherine Curzon

Set in the leafy heart of the London borough of Richmond upon Thames, the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew are a tranquil haven from the bustle of city life. Here one can step back in time to a world long since gone, and amid the verdant flora of Kew, those who walked here more than two centuries ago don't seem so far away. The history of the Kew estate is not just a scientific endeavour and architectural extravagance, though, it is also rich in tales of royal privilege and intrigue. The sweeping grounds of Kew have witnessed fathers and sons at war, happily families at rest and have even provided refuge for the garden-loving Prince of Wales who was a thorn in his father's side.

The origins of Kew go right back to 1299, when Edward I established his court at a manor house in Sheen, better known today as Richmond. Although he was the first king to take up residence there, it wasn't until Henry VII built what was to become Richmond Palace in 1501 that the area became a long-term royal stomping ground. Where the king was happy to call the palace his home, his courtiers couldn't afford to be too far away and they began to erect sumptuous houses and estates in Kew. Although the great and good flocked to the area, with Mary Tudor calling Kew home by 1522, there was still no actual garden to speak of.

The land that later became the rolling gardens of Kew was once nothing more than a field, laid out for strip farming. Unimaginatively known as Kew Field, it was part of the estate of Richard Bennet and, when he died, it was eventually passed in to the ownership of the brother of the Earl of Essex, Sir Henry Capell, later Lord Capell of Tewkesbury.

Lord Capell had big plans for that humble field. He loved to spend his days cultivating the land and, in time, began to develop what would one day become the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew. A visitor to Capell's home of Kew House in 1678 wrote: "His garden has the choicest fruit of any plantation in England, as he is the most industrious and understanding in it." Opposite Kew House was a residence known as the Dutch House, thanks to its apparently Dutch

architectural styling - particularly the eye-catching gables. Although it dated back to 1631, the house sat atop even older foundations, with its origins going right back to Tudor England.

In 1727, George II and Caroline of Ansbach came to the throne as king and queen of Great Britain, and Kew was about to begin its life as a royal estate. With a whole household, and six children squeezed into Richmond Lodge each summer, the new king was keen to move to a roomier establishment. He knew Kew of old as it had been the home of his secretary, and was sure it was just the place for the family. The king took out a lease on the estate and promptly established his eldest daughters in Dutch House. Also included in the lease was a building known as the Queen's House, though Caroline never resided there. When Frederick, prince of Wales, arrived in England in 1728, it was only natural that he too settled at Kew, though he wasn't always a welcome addition to the happy family gathering.

Frederick was the eldest son of George II and Queen Caroline but he and his royal father really didn't get along. When George left Hanover for England in 1714, he left Frederick behind at the insistence of George I, and for more than a decade father and son were strangers. As the years passed, and more children were born to the royal couple, Frederick became more and more of a stranger to his parents and by the time he reached England, they barely knew one another at all.

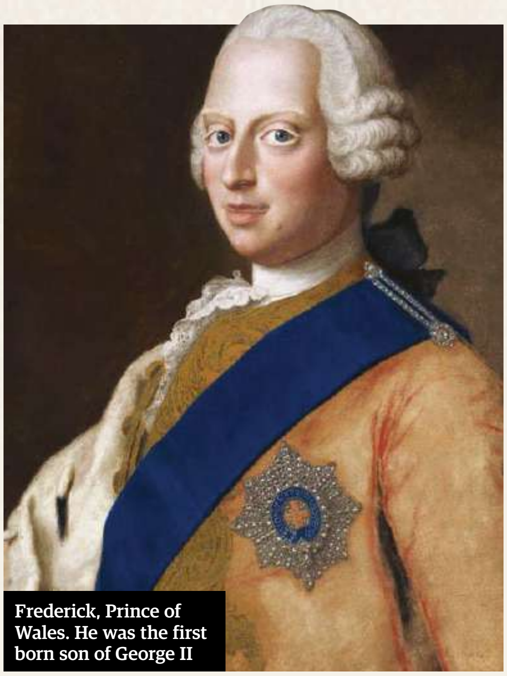
Perhaps hoping that it might bring him closer to George and Caroline, Frederick took out a lease on the former Capell house. He found the timber structure in dire need of renovation and called in William Kent, the architect who did so much to shape the face of Georgian England. Under Kent, the house was transformed into the newly named White House, its Tudor origins stripped out in favour of new Georgian splendour.

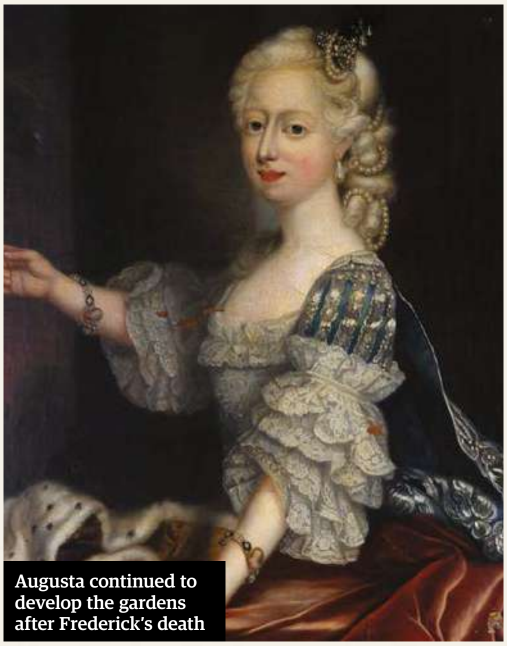
Although its predecessor had certainly been luxurious, the White House was intended to show off the taste, wealth and grandeur of its new occupant. Estranged from his father and denied entry to the London court, Frederick was determined to prove that he was every bit as regal as the king. Richly decorated by Kent, the house was centred on a remarkable staircase that swept from the ground floor to the royal apartments from a central hall. The Sun's rays lit this airy, bright space as they cascaded through the upper windows, picking out the new features and ornate architecture.

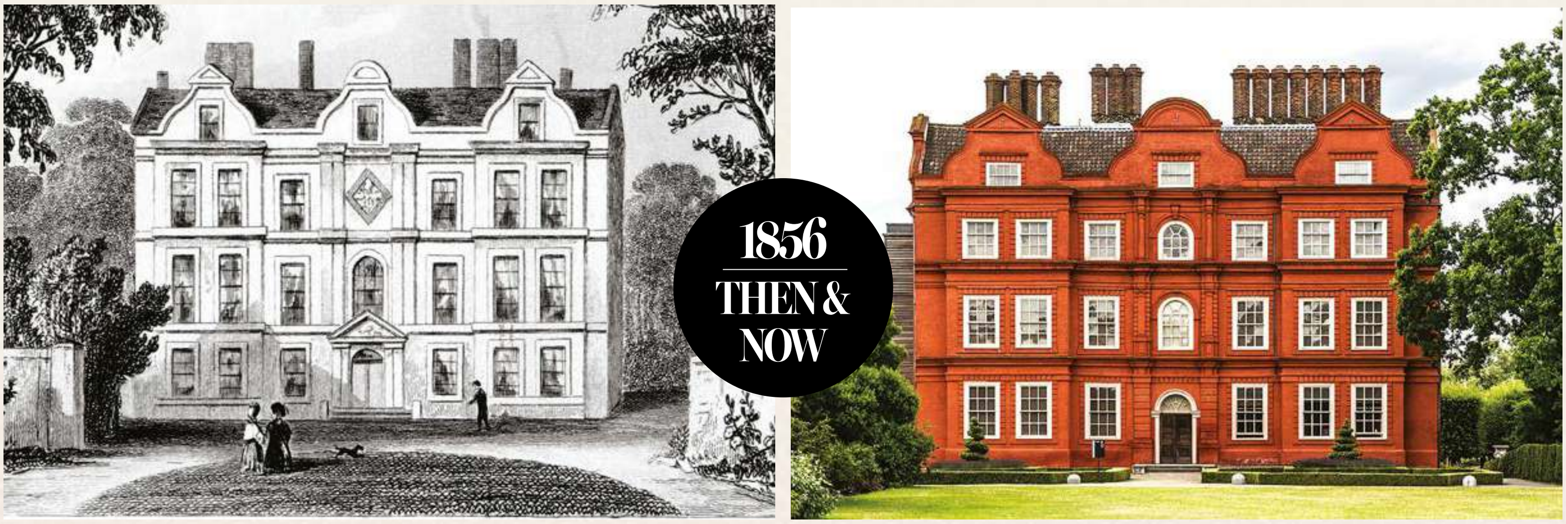
> "Frederick spent many happy hours toiling in the gardens at Kew"

Frederick spent many happy hours in the gardens at Kew, toiling to ensure their beauty was unmatched. In fact, the chronicler of the Georgian court, Horace Walpole, notes the fateful day when Frederick, "…put on a light unaired frock and waistcoat, went to Kew, walked on a bitter day," and there caught the chill that killed him in 1751.

His wife, Augusta, was now a widow and she channelled all her energies into her children, particularly the boy who would rule as George III. She mended the relationship with her father-in-law and poured her grief into hard work, with the gardens at Kew in her sights. Augusta was so protective of Kew that even Capability Brown was rejected for a job there. Instead, with the assistance of her head gardener, William Ashton, architect, William Chambers, and the controversial


Frederick, Prince of Wales. He was the first born son of George II


Augusta continued to develop the gardens after Frederick's death


1856 THEN & NOW

More than a garden

Discover the many parts that make up Kew

Queen Charlotte's Cottage

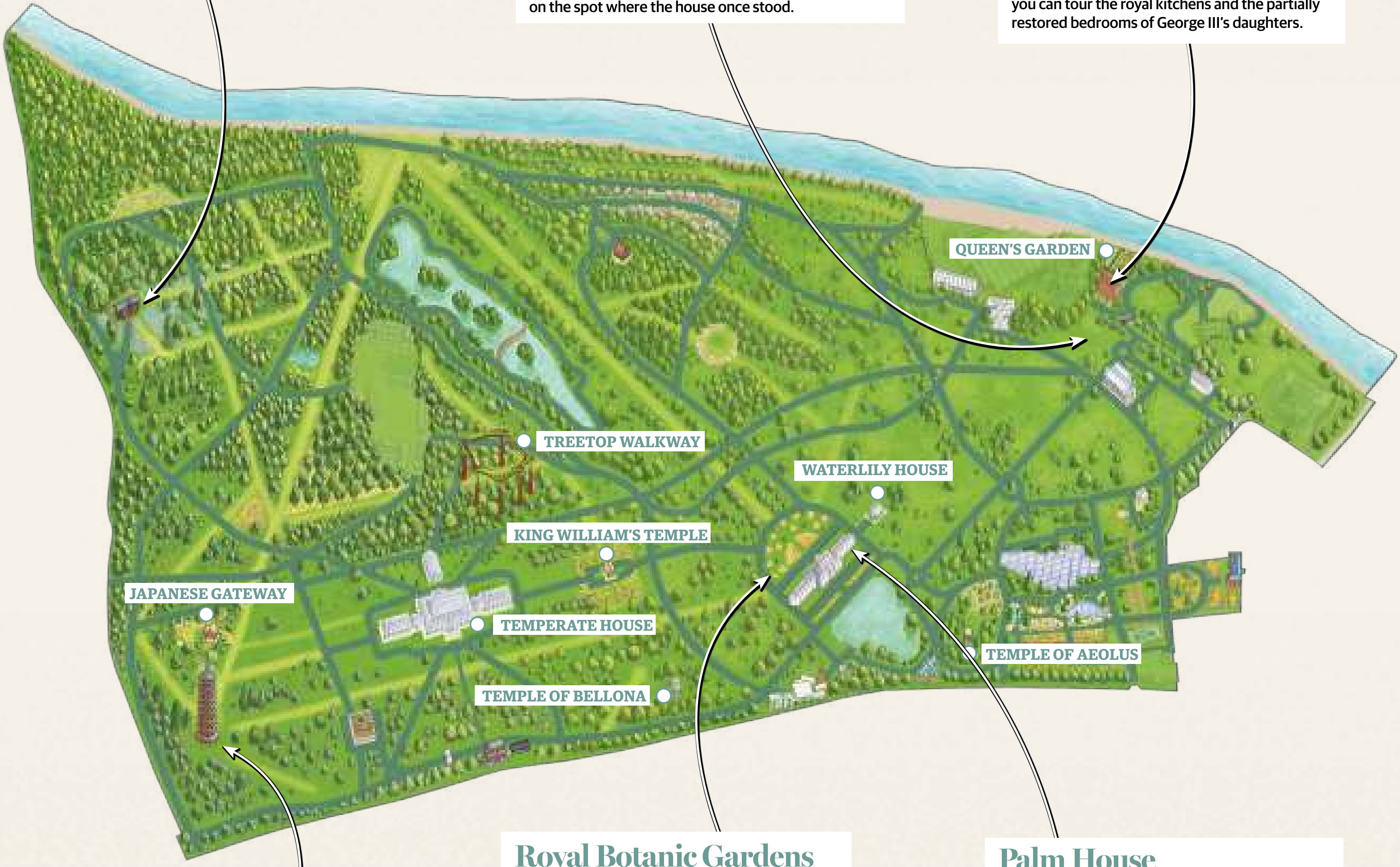
The cottage was used as a summerhouse by the royal family, who enjoyed taking tea there during relaxing afternoons. Queen Charlotte loved it and often took refuge in this secluded house.

The White House

Apparently built in the Tudor era, the White House underwent some extensive renovations under Frederick, prince of Wales. George III was incarcerated there during his madness and had the house demolished in 1802. The now historic location is marked by a sundial on the spot where the house once stood.

Kew Palace

Built in the 1630s, the distinctive Dutch gables gave this house its original name, the Dutch House. George III was raised here; it was a nursery to the future George IV and was the place where Queen Charlotte died. Inside, you can tour the royal kitchens and the partially restored bedrooms of George III's daughters.



Pagoda

The Pagoda reaches 50 metres into the sky and was finished in 1762. A triumph of Georgian London, it was not expected to stand for long by the disbelieving public. It was reopened in 2018 after a two-year restoration project.

Royal Botanic Gardens

Thanks to the passion of Augusta, princess of Wales, and her son, George III, the gardens at Kew are among the most exotic and verdant in the world. Frederick and Augusta were both enthusiastic about the development of Kew, and following Frederick's death (reportedly a result of a chill caught walking in his beloved gardens), Augusta continued the important work.

Palm House

The Palm House is perhaps Kew's most famous structure, and is considered to be among the most important surviving Victorian glass and metalwork structures anywhere in the world. It consists of some 16,000 panes of glass and forms an indoor tropical forest, with palm varieties including the peach palm, queen palm and coconut palm.

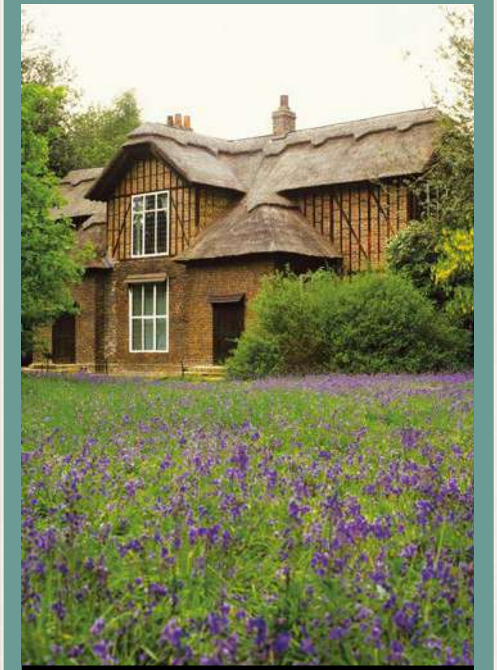
Queen Charlotte's renovations

How a lowly cottage was transformed

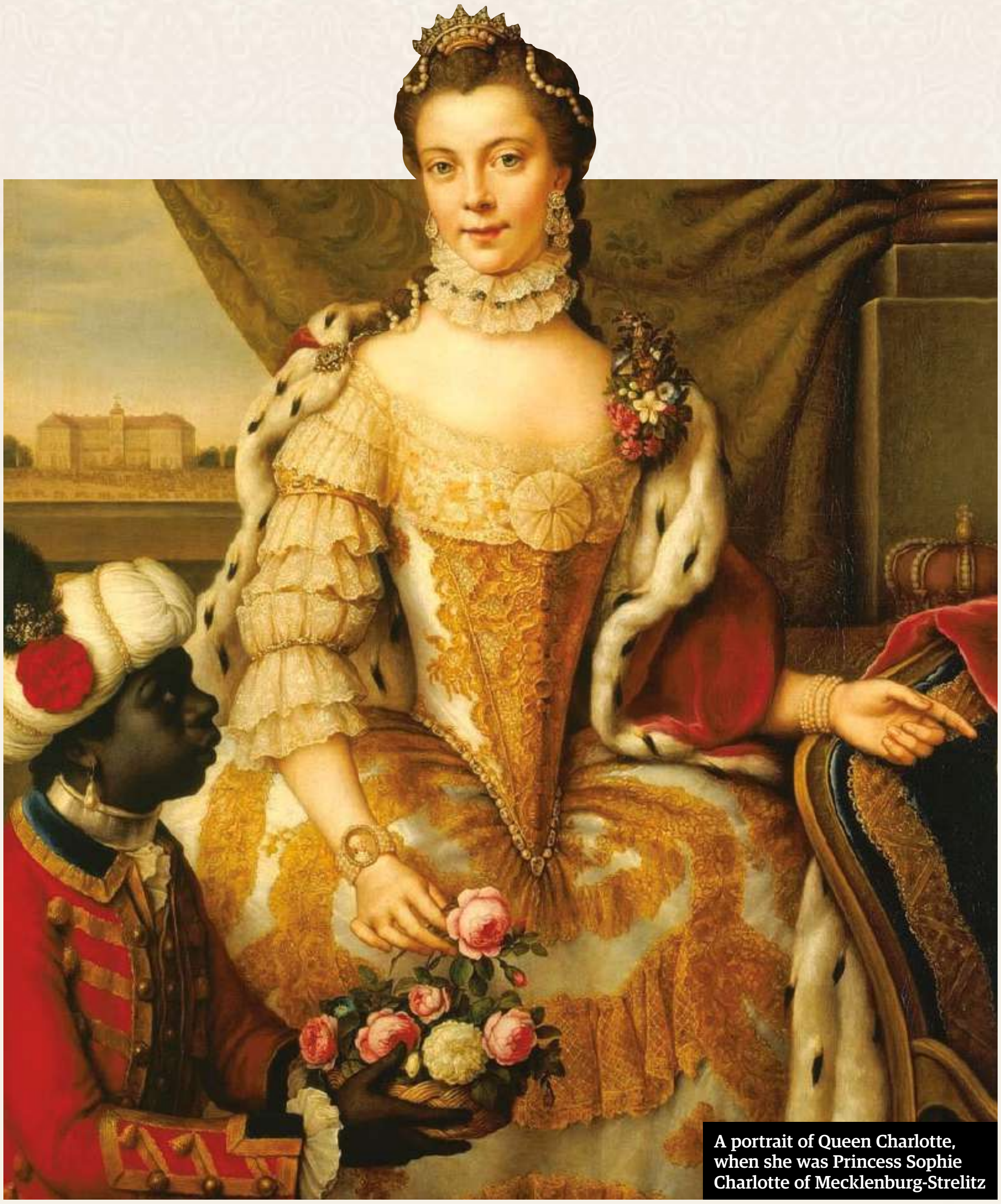
The origins of Queen Charlotte's Cottage are mysterious, though it appears that the quaint unassuming residence was initially constructed as a home for the keeper of the royal menagerie in 1754. George III gave the cottage to Charlotte when they married in 1761 and it was soon a favoured place for the family to take afternoon tea or spend a few hours relaxing during long summer days.

The thatched roof and rustic construction would have been familiar to Charlotte from the farms of her distant homeland and she adored it. Under her ownership, the single-storey building was given an extra floor, doubling its size. The cottage was Charlotte's sanctuary and she filled it with her favourite prints and artwork, while her daughter, Elizabeth, decorated the upstairs picnic room. Here, Charlotte undertook an enthusiastic study of botany and nearby she added the New Menagerie, with its resident exotic animals including black swans and the very first kangaroo to be imported into Great Britain.

When Queen Victoria came to the throne, she became as fond of the cottage as Queen Charlotte had been, and often spent time there away from the public gaze. Ironically, Victoria's mother, the duchess of Kent, turned down Dutch House as a possible residence as, "...an old house is quite unfit for me". Queen Victoria, however, loved Queen Charlotte's cottage and when she bequeathed it to the nation, she included a condition that the bluebell woodland near to the cottage would never be developed or changed.



Fairly generous for a cottage, Queen Charlotte's hideaway was a favourite of Queen Victoria, who loved to walk in the nearby woods



A portrait of Queen Charlotte, when she was Princess Sophie Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz

John Stuart, Third Earl of Bute as project manager, the gardens began to expand at an incredible rate. A future prime minister, Bute was Augusta's closest advisor; he was famed for his shapely legs and rumours swept the land that he and the princess were a lot more than friends.

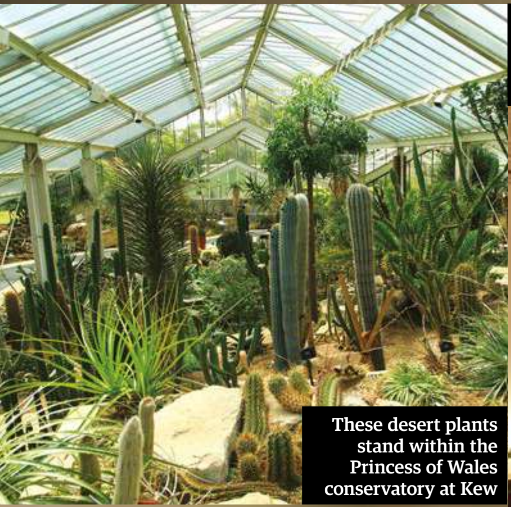
The attractive 2.8-hectare site ballooned and contained an enormous variety of plants under the stewardship of Francis Masson. He envisioned a garden that was not only attractive but also practical, and curated a physic garden, the early precursor to the Royal Botanic Gardens. Kew was noted for the way that new follies seemed to spring up almost overnight, most of them long since gone now. Meanwhile, ornate pagodas, mosques, bridges and a magnificent orangery left visitors awestruck at the sheer extravagance of the place. Walpole wrote of the flamboyant pagoda: "We begin to perceive the tower of Kew from Montpelier Row; in a fortnight you will see it in Yorkshire."

> "When Queen Victoria came to the throne, she became as fond of the cottage as Queen Charlotte had been"

The young George, prince of Wales, was educated at Dutch House, the building now famous as Kew Palace. He would always be fond of Kew, though in later years it would become a place of unhappiness for the king. In fact, George was riding at Kew in 1760 when news reached him that his grandfather was dead; barely into his 20s, George was now the king of England.

Like his late father before him, George III loved Kew and its grounds. When he married Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, he gave her a gift of a

The Marianne North Gallery pays tribute to an amateur artist who recorded botany



These desert plants stand within the Princess of Wales conservatory at Kew

The queen's drawing room at Kew Palace brings to life the Georgian history

Some parts of Kew Gardens are formally designed, like this one

The large lily pads are one of Kew's great marvels, housed within their own pavilion

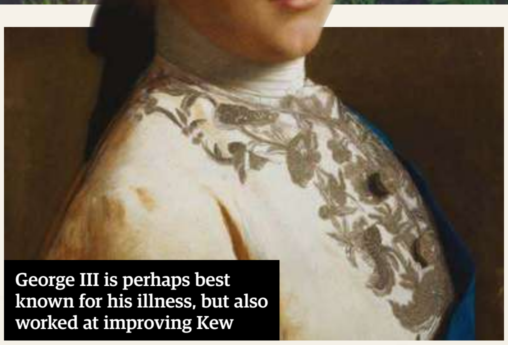
thatched cottage in the grounds. Known as Queen Charlotte's Cottage, it stands to this day and was a particular favourite of Queen Victoria. Although he initially made his summer home at Richmond Lodge, with the death of Dowager Princess Augusta in 1772, George III moved his household to the White House. Due to the relatively small scale of the property, he housed his elder sons at Dutch House and his other children were in the neighbouring Cambridge Cottage.

Soon the Capability Brown-designed estate at nearby Richmond was merged with Kew to create a vast landscape, with plenty of scope for new features and designs. Fired up by these exciting renovation schemes, George appointed Sir Joseph Banks, who had voyaged with Captain Cook, to continue the work his mother had started. Banks set about curating an exotic garden that would delight all the senses with its collection of flora gathered from the four corners of the globe. Charging trusted botanists with the collection of specimens from the most far-flung climes, he wrote, "Whenever you shall meet with plants, that are in your opinion particularly beautiful or curious, take on board one or two of each sort for the use of His Majesty's Botanic Gardens at Kew."

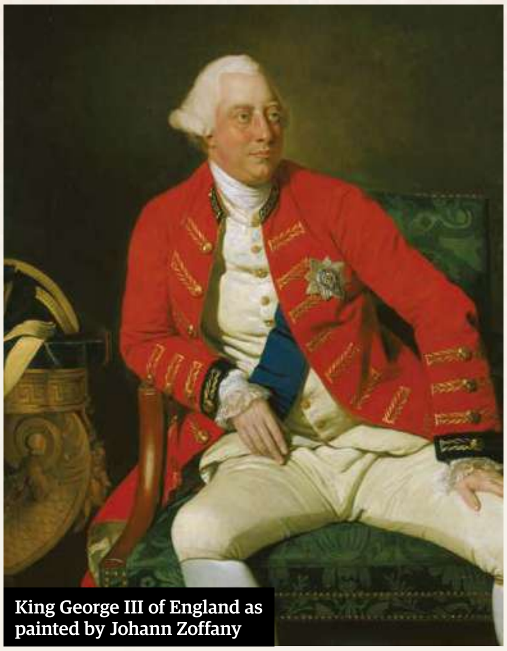
So breathtaking and famed was the Kew collection that Catherine the Great herself asked if she might be allowed to use some cuttings to establish a similar garden in Russia. George III directed Banks to assemble a collection of seeds and cuttings and send them over to Saint Petersburg in the care of one of Kew's most senior gardeners. It must have been music to George's ears, because if there was one thing he liked more than working the land, it was sharing the pleasure of gardening with others.

The king was so famed for his passion for agricultural work that he revelled in the nickname Farmer George, and he was sure that his sons would soon be following him into the fields. In the peaceful grounds at Kew, the Duke of York and the prince of Wales sowed and harvested wheat, tending it from seed to crop and all the way to table as a loaf of bread. The family enjoyed the seclusion and relative simplicity of life at Kew and, after many years of leasing the property, the House of Hanover bought the estate outright.

Kew, however, was not always to be a happy home for George III and when the dark times came, they were devastating. It was here that George III's beloved son, Octavius, died at just five years old, plunging the family into mourning. However, worse was yet to come and in 1788, George III found Kew had turned from his sanctuary into his impromptu prison.


George III is perhaps best known for his illness, but also worked at improving Kew

Dark purple lupines are one of the many gorgeous flowers that grow in Kew



King George III of England as painted by Johann Zoffany

Even Catherine the Great was in awe of Kew, asking for her own cuttings

> "Kew, however, was not always to be a happy home for George III and when the dark times came, they were devastating"

The madness of King George III began innocuously enough, with the monarch complaining of a digestive disorder that no amount of medicine could treat. What started as a violent stomachache did not remain as a physical pain and by autumn, the king was confined at Kew. Sleepless, confused and often violent, he raged and ranted in the care of Lincolnshire physician Doctor Francis Willis, who was known across the land for his treatment of mental illness.

Foaming at the mouth and jabbering incoherently, the home that had been George's tranquil sanctuary became a place of punishment and correction. Plunged into ice cold baths and force fed purging potions intended to bring on vomiting and diarrhoea, the king suffered through a brutal and agonising regimen. Leeches fed from his forehead, his scalp was shaved bare and hot vinegar and mustard was spread on his skin until the monarch howled in agony and fought as though his very life was at stake.

Gagged with a handkerchief and forcibly restrained in a straitjacket, the monarch was ruled with a mixture of fear and coercion as Doctor Willis employed every method at his disposal. When George grew belligerent, he was restrained in a specially made chair, which he nicknamed the coronation chair, and kept from the company of his family. Should the king behave well, Willis rewarded him with visits from his wife and children, as well as his spaniel, Flora. On occasion, George would speak to Charlotte with such fury that she could scarcely hold back her tears and on others he would appear to address Octavius and Alfred, his sons who had died in infancy.

Word of the king's indisposition spread across the land and things got so bad that parliament had no choice but to discuss the possibility of a regent. With the king in such a desperate condition, he could not possibly hope to make the speech that would mark the state opening of parliament. Until the speech was given, no official business could be conducted; it was a deadlock.

The discussed Regency Bill would place power in the hands of the king's eldest son, the Prince of Wales, and from London he looked on with interest. The prince and his father did not get on, with the king severely disapproving of his son's publicly profligate ways. As the years had passed, Wales had lost interest in sowing seeds, tending to the gardens and baking bread, and become fonder of gambling, girls and courting scandal. He was a constant and expensive headache to both his parents, and now it looked as though he might be about to assume power. Later famed as prince regent and King George IV, the prince took

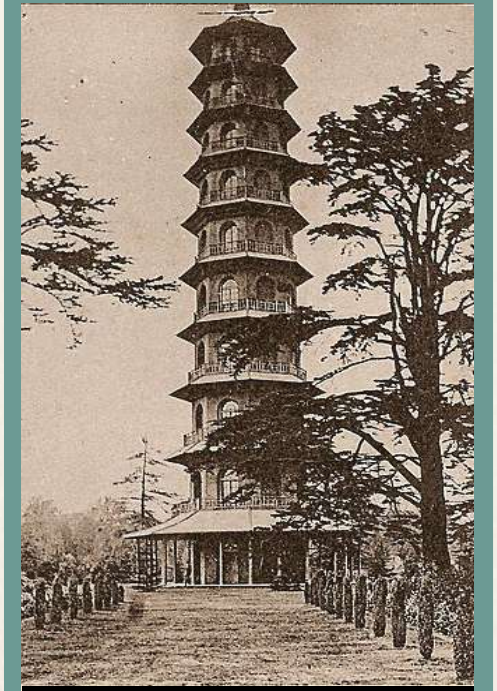
Pagodas and pavilions

In the Georgian era, Kew was as famous for its follies and garden structures as it was for its palaces and flora. Most famous is the octagonal pagoda that was unveiled in 1762. Standing more than 50 metres tall, the public was convinced it would crash down to earth. In fact, it stands to this day, although the vibrant colours and 80 ornate dragons that once decorated it are long gone. It was designed by Sir William Chambers at the height of the craze for chinoiserie and more than 200 steps allow views out over the park.

Chambers also designed the orangery, which was constructed in 1761. Intended to serve as a hothouse for the burgeoning collection of citrus plants, the large, ornate building was eventually found to be unfit for this purpose and went through several changes of use. It still stands to this day and is a restaurant and popular venue for events.

With the prince's estranged mother, Caroline of Ansbach, employing William Kent to add architectural highlights at Richmond that included a Merlin's Cave and a Gothic Hermitage, her son and daughter-in-law were determined to outdo her.

Princess Augusta kept Chambers so busy at Kew that he even complained of how he had no time left to pursue other projects. She and Frederick were full of enthusiasm for their home and had him pepper the grounds with follies and temples that would catch the eye of strolling visitors. Glimpsing these structures through the trees and plants through which the pathways twisted, they transported the visitor at Kew to another times, a distant land or even a fantasy landscape. Few of the follies exist today but from those that do, we can see that it must have been magnificent.



The magnificent pagoda towers over Kew and, some noted, might well be seen from Yorkshire

great delight in his alliance with the Whigs, rabid opponents of the royalist Tory government, so the consequences of the prince's regency could prove politically catastrophic.

As prime minister, Pitt the Younger wrote the bill and would prove a loyal friend to the king, both men keen to keep the Prince of Wales and his Whig friends from gaining too much influence. Naturally, the Whigs argued that the prince was the only acceptable choice for regent but Pitt wasn't so sure. Though he agreed that the prince was the most obvious candidate, he would not be swayed into the decision. After all, Wales would certainly dismiss Pitt and install his opponent, Charles James Fox, so Pitt's bill included clauses that ensured that this could never happen.

In the end, negotiations dragged on for so long that the king recovered before the bill could be passed. In early 1788, it was reported that George III was back in action and the possible crisis was averted, for now at least. In later years, the king would again be confined at Kew, as Fox wrote: "In such a state as neither to see ministers or his family." Kept from his loved ones, George was hidden away at Dutch House before his final move to Windsor, where he would spend the rest of his days until death.

Visitors to Kew throughout the first quarter of the 19th century would have been treated to the sight of an unfinished structure known as the Castellated Palace. Newly inspired by a love of Gothic design, George III commissioned the palace from architect James Wyatt, and was described by the *Encyclopædia Britannica* as being "in the worst of taste." Still haunted by memories of his incarceration there, the White House was pulled down in preparation for the completion of this new Gothic palace. Instead, George's madness returned and with it blindness. Without the king's enthusiasm and involvement, the project went over budget by thousands and construction ground to a halt. The Castellated Palace would never be completed.

With her husband lost to madness and her son now prince regent, Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz retreated to the sanctuary of Dutch House. The king was confined at Windsor and though

> "George IV had once conspired to meet his lovers in the secluded grounds, stealing over the walls"

Restoring Kew Palace

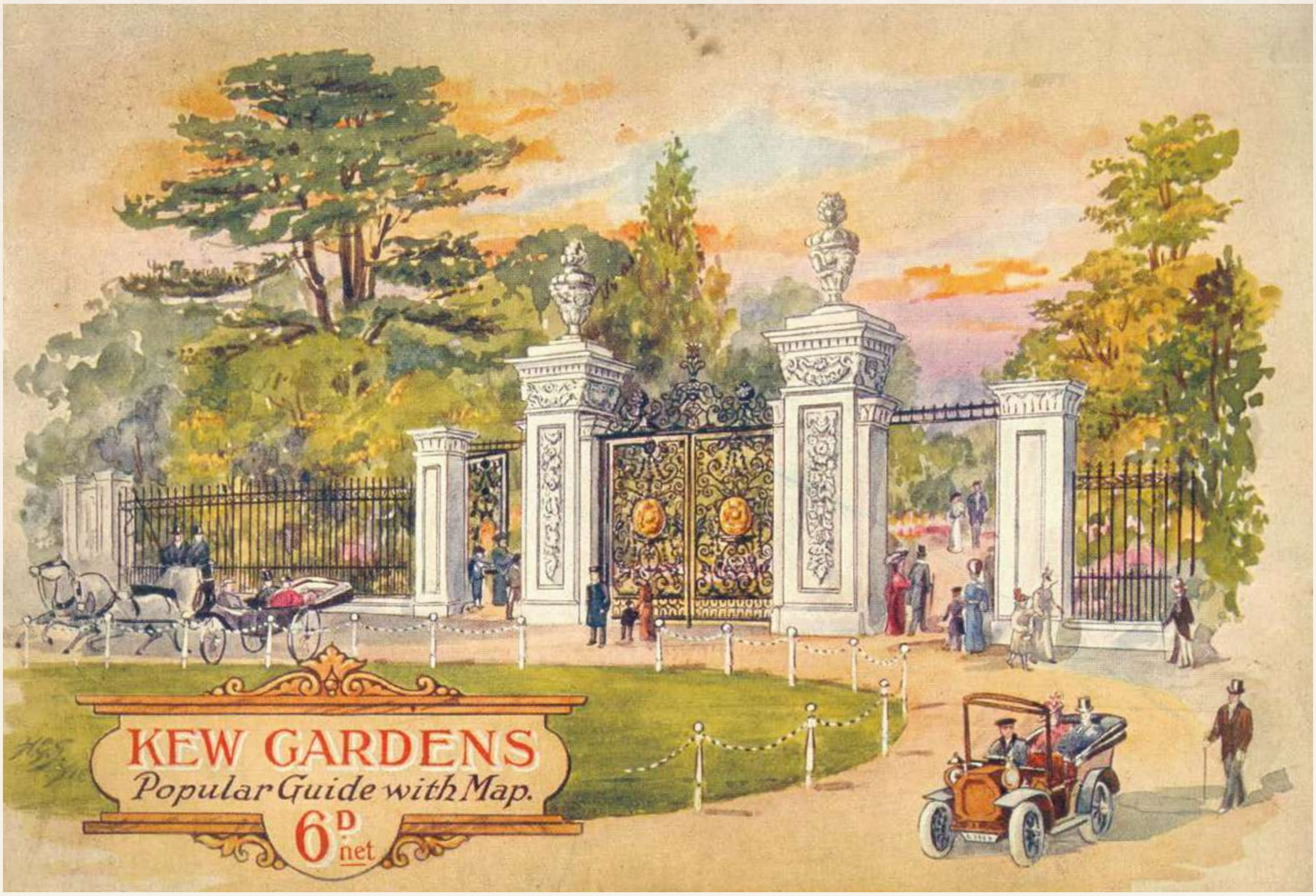
In 2006, Kew Palace and the pagoda in its grounds reopened to the public after a decade-long restoration that cost more than £6 million. The first occasion held there to mark the opening was the 80th birthday of Queen Elizabeth II, for which the royal family attended an enormous party in Kew Palace.

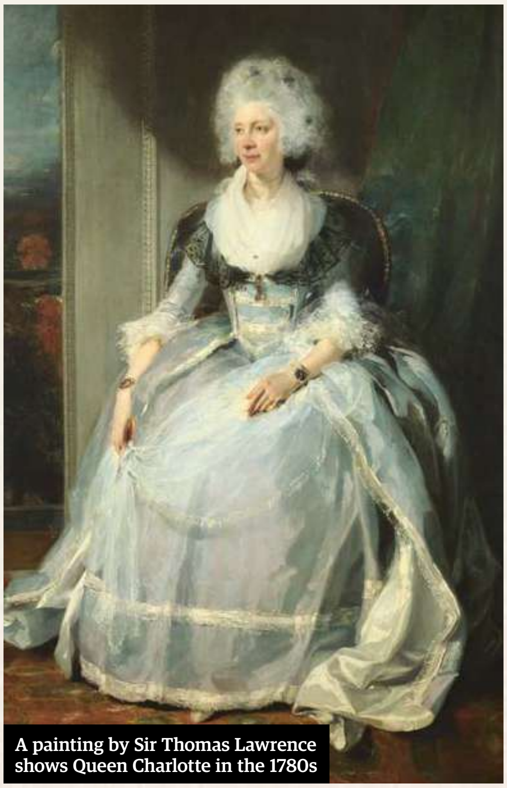
Bequeathed to the nation by Queen Victoria in 1899, Kew Palace had not been cared for as well as it should have been and had fallen into disrepair. When Historical Royal Palaces assumed responsibility for the building, they found a palace in desperate need of some loving attention. Happily though, they also found a palace that retained its original 18th-century flavour, albeit in a somewhat faded and tattered form.

The palace closed to the public in 1996 and underwent ten years of work, during which time it was completely overhauled and restored. The fabric of the building was conserved, while new textiles were woven to decorate the interior using original period techniques. Under the care of Historic Royal Palaces, the palace was painstakingly restored to its former glory and original features that had been thought long lost were slowly revealed once more.

In the Queen's Boudoir, the ornate Jacobean plaster ceiling rose once again looks down over the room where Charlotte and her daughters relaxed together. Opulent brass fittings commissioned by Frederick, prince of Wales, were repaired and returned to their rightful place and the crumbling, fading facade was restored to its royal splendour, ready to welcome visitors once more.

A repaired and restored brass door lock bears the royal cipher of Frederick, prince of Wales




A painting by Sir Thomas Lawrence shows Queen Charlotte in the 1780s

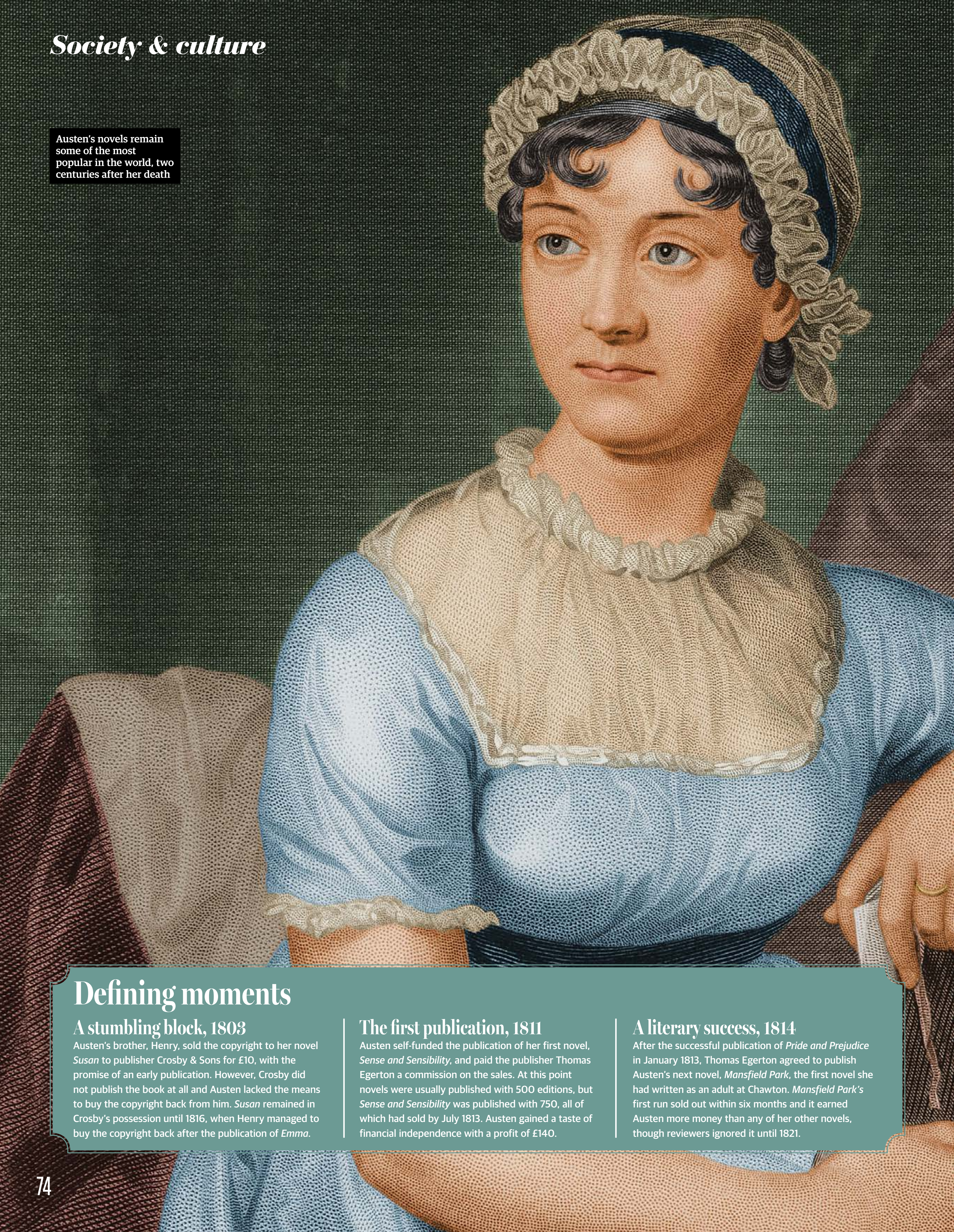
Charlotte longed to join him, her health was too frail to make the journey. Instead her sons came to Dutch House to marry in her presence and her daughters rallied to her side, all of them knowing that their mother would never again leave. Queen Charlotte died there, in the home she loved, at the age of 74, her hand held by the prince regent.

When the king died at Windsor in 1820, George IV finally came to the throne. He swiftly ordered the demolition of the unfinished Castellated Palace, whose staircase eventually found a home at Buckingham Palace, and planned for Dutch House to suffer the same fate. It was only saved by the intervention of his brother, William – the future King William IV – who had married at the house and always nurtured plans to one day use it as a royal residence again.

George IV had little interest in Kew, although he had once conspired to meet his lovers in the secluded grounds there, stealing over the walls in all manner of disguises. He had long since abandoned its peaceful pleasures in favour of the whirlwind social life offered by London and Brighton. His later years would be spent hidden away at Windsor, his ballooning weight and declining health rendering him virtually housebound and earning him the nickname 'Prince of Whales'. Under the neglectful stewardship of the new king, Kew was forgotten; the garden went into free fall and the carefully cultivated collections ran wild, becoming untended and unloved.

Kew, however, was destined for a happy ending. In the 1840s, responsibility for the garden was awarded to William Hooker and his son, Joseph. Although many of the Georgian structures could not be saved, the Hookers restored Kew to its former glory and commissioned the stunning Palm House by Decimus Burton, which remains a central feature to this day. The Royal Horticultural Society named Kew as a national botanical garden and its future as a national treasure was secured. Through the years, Kew has endured; it has survived arson attacks by suffragettes, hurricanes and even frenzied woodpeckers. Placed on the UNESCO World Heritage Register in 2003, its future is safe. That humble field in Richmond has become one of the most visited estates in the world.

© Alamy, Thinkstock, Shutterstock, Newsteam, KEW, Flickr - Jim Linwood, Historic Royal Palaces; NPI



Austen's novels remain some of the most popular in the world, two centuries after her death

Defining moments

A stumbling block, 1803

Austen's brother, Henry, sold the copyright to her novel *Susan* to publisher Crosby & Sons for £10, with the promise of an early publication. However, Crosby did not publish the book at all and Austen lacked the means to buy the copyright back from him. *Susan* remained in Crosby's possession until 1816, when Henry managed to buy the copyright back after the publication of *Emma*.

The first publication, 1811

Austen self-funded the publication of her first novel, *Sense and Sensibility*, and paid the publisher Thomas Egerton a commission on the sales. At this point novels were usually published with 500 editions, but *Sense and Sensibility* was published with 750, all of which had sold by July 1813. Austen gained a taste of financial independence with a profit of £140.

A literary success, 1814

After the successful publication of *Pride and Prejudice* in January 1813, Thomas Egerton agreed to publish Austen's next novel, *Mansfield Park*, the first novel she had written as an adult at Chawton. *Mansfield Park's* first run sold out within six months and it earned Austen more money than any of her other novels, though reviewers ignored it until 1821.

JANE AUSTEN

Uncovering the life and work of the iconic author whose novels changed the literary world

Written by Jessica Leggett

The works of Jane Austen have kept generations of people around the world entertained with the unique blend of witty humour, irony and social realism that defined her writing. It was during Austen's lifetime that novels began to take off as a major form of entertainment and in the two centuries since her death, she has without a doubt become one of Britain's best loved novelists.

It is impossible to discuss Austen's work without looking at her life. She was born on 16 December 1775 in the village of Steventon in Hampshire, to George and Cassandra Austen, the seventh of eight children. Her father was a clergyman who made a modest living, so to provide extra income, the family residence also doubled as a small school for boys.

When Austen was around eight years old, her beloved older sister Cassandra was sent to Oxford for her education. Refusing to part with her, Austen went too and the pair almost died when they caught typhus. After this, the girls home educated until they left for boarding school in 1785, returning on account of the school's expensive fees.

Austen developed a passion for reading from an early age, encouraged by her father and older brothers. She enjoyed writing stories and poems and would read them aloud to her family. Among one of her first works was her short epistolary novel, *Lady Susan*, which she wrote between 1793 and 1795. Afterwards, Austen began writing her very first novel, *Elinor and Marianne*.

It was around this time, in December 1795, that Austen was introduced to Tom Lefroy, a student who was heading to London to train as a barrister. Lefroy made several visits to Steventon over the next month and there was a clear attraction between the two. Their relationship was eventually cut short when his family intervened and sent Lefroy away – a match between the two was not ideal, particularly as neither of them had any money, and Austen never saw him again.

Austen had finished her revisions for *Elinor and Marianne* and completed the drafts for her novels *First Impressions* and *Susan*, a satire for the popular gothic novel, by 1799. When her father announced his retirement the following year, Austen moved with her sister and parents to Bath, although she was upset to leave the only home she had ever known.

Two years later, Austen accepted a proposal from her childhood friend, Harris Bigg-Wither, even though she had no romantic feelings for him. Bigg-Wither was in line for a sizeable inheritance and this appealed to Austen, who wanted to secure her family's future. However, Austen revoked her acceptance the next day after sleeping on her decision. This is the only known proposal Austen received and she remained single for the rest of her life, aside from a reported romance with a stranger during her time in Bath.

Austen was unproductive in Bath compared to her time in Steventon and she barely wrote anything save for a brief attempt at a novel, *The Watsons*, which was left unfinished. It has been claimed that Austen's ability to write was affected because she was unhappy in Bath, or because she was simply too busy to focus on her work, however we do not know the reason for certain.

After her father's sudden death in 1805, Austen moved frequently with her mother and sister before settling in a cottage located on her brother Edward's estate in Chawton, in 1809. While living here, Jane oversaw the successful publications of *Elinor and Marianne* and *First Impressions*, which were retitled as *Sense and Sensibility* and *Pride and Prejudice*, as well as her new novels *Mansfield Park* and *Emma*, in 1811, 1813, 1814 and 1815

The cottage in Chawton where Austen lived for the last eight years of her life, and is now a museum in her honour

respectively. All were published anonymously, with the title page of *Sense and Sensibility* simply stating that it was written 'By a Lady'.

At the beginning of 1816, Austen noticed that she was unwell but chose to ignore her symptoms, persevering with her next novel, *The Elliots*. She completed the first draft that July and over the next two months she rewrote the final two chapters. By January 1817, Austen had picked up her pen and paper again, starting on a new novel titled *The Brothers*.

Sadly, Austen's health seriously declined and she was forced to stop writing *The Brothers* after completing 12 chapters. Lacking energy and struggling to walk, Austen was confined to her bed by April and the next month, she was moved to Winchester by Cassandra and her brother Henry to seek treatment. This proved to be futile, as Austen succumbed to her illness on 18 July 1817, aged just 41. Exactly what she suffered from is undetermined, but it is believed that Austen may have had Addison's disease.

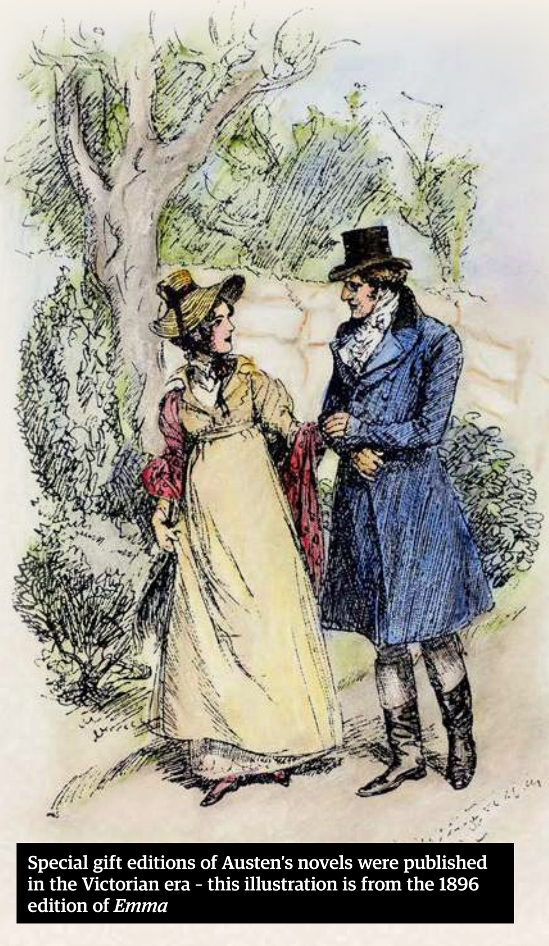
Henry arranged for his sister to be buried in Winchester Cathedral and with Cassandra, they set about organising the publication of Austen's remaining completed novels, *Susan* and *The Elliots*. Published together in 1818, they were renamed *Northanger Abbey* and *Persuasion,* accompanied with a biographical note written by Henry, identifying Austen as the author of all six novels for the first time.

Austen's life had a huge impact on her writing style and although she was known for her love of satire, it was her distinctive use of social realism that won her acclaim from contemporary critics. Her ability to incorporate ordinary life into her novels entranced her readers, who imagined themselves experiencing the same conversations and events as the characters. This is why Austen's novels are set in the south of England, with both *Northanger Abbey* and *Persuasion* set in Bath, because this is where she had lived and could therefore accurately write about life there.

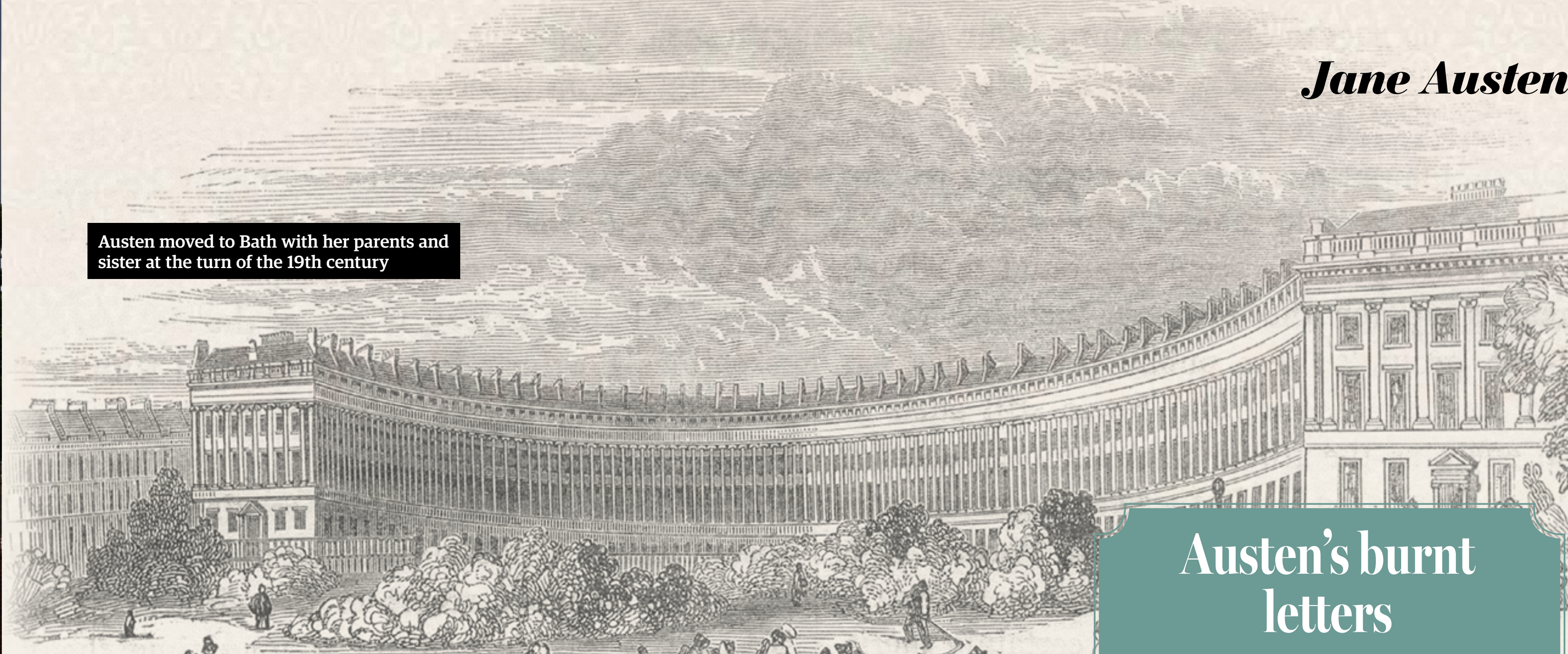
In addition, some of Austen's fictional characters are believed to have been based on people in her life. For example, the sisters Elinor and Marianne Dashwood in *Sense and Sensibility* are often compared to Cassandra and Austen herself, with Marianne's romance with Mr Willoughby commonly seen as a reflection of her fleeting relationship with Tom Lefroy.

Furthermore, two of Austen's brothers, Francis and Charles, were in the Royal Navy during the Napoleonic Wars, which may have influenced her decision to make many of her characters officers. For example, Mr Wickham, from *Pride and Prejudice*, is a militia officer and Captain Wentworth, from *Persuasion*, makes his fortune as a naval officer during the wars.

Nonetheless, it is incorrect to deem Austen a realist writer since all of her novels had an idealistic ending. Her heroines always married



Special gift editions of Austen's novels were published in the Victorian era – this illustration is from the 1896 edition of *Emma*



Austen moved to Bath with her parents and sister at the turn of the 19th century

“Austen was not considered a great novelist during her lifetime”

for love rather than for social status or money, perhaps indicating that Austen herself believed in the importance of affection. This is possibly suggested by own her broken engagement - even though her female contemporaries were faced with the reality of status and financial security when it came to marriage.

Among Austen's admirers was the Prince Regent, who kept a set of her novels at every one of his residences. In 1815 his librarian, James Stanier Clarke, invited Austen to dedicate her forthcoming novel *Emma* to the prince. As she could not turn it down, Austen begrudgingly wrote the dedication even though she disliked the prince for his treatment of his estranged wife, Princess Caroline.

However, not everyone was completely taken with Austen's novels. Fellow author and literary legend Charlotte Brontë read *Pride and Prejudice* upon the recommendation of critic GH Lewes and was left very disappointed. An unimpressed Brontë did not hold back with her opinion of the novel and said to Lewes; “I should hardly like to live with her ladies and gentlemen in their elegant but confined houses.”

Brontë was always frustrated whenever her novel, *Jane Eyre*, was compared to Austen. Others have also voiced their criticism over Austen's novels, including writers DH Lawrence and Virginia Woolf. These critics believed that Austen's writing was restricted to the small, elite world of her characters. Though her novels were centred around the elite, money and the necessity of marriage for young women, it was because this was her reality.

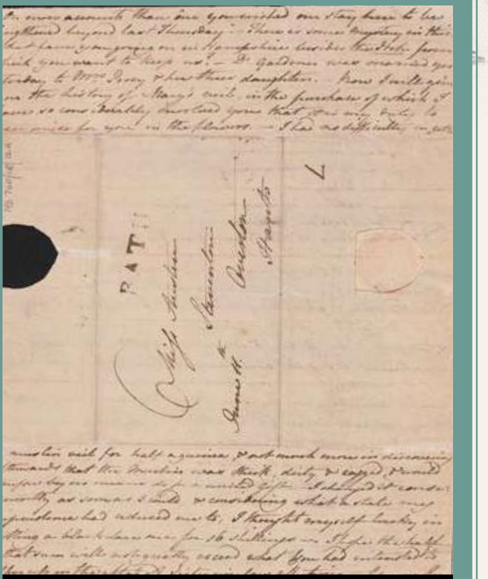
Considering the debate around her work that has continued to this day, it might be surprising to learn that Austen was not considered a great novelist during her lifetime, although her books sold fairly well. Her tombstone in Winchester Cathedral does not even mention her career as an author, perhaps because her family did not deem it important enough, or even because that's not how they wanted her to be remembered.

This all changed after Austen's nephew, James Edward Austen-Leigh, published a biography on his aunt in 1869. Brought to the attention of the Victorians, Austen's novels were subsequently reissued and they flew off the shelves, finally achieving the fame they deserved. Three years after the biography was released, a memorial tablet was placed on the wall next to Austen's grave, which finally shone a light on Jane Austen, the author.

Jane Austen

The memorial plaque dedicated to Austen at Winchester Cathedral

Austen's burnt letters



One of the surviving letters from Jane to her beloved sister Cassandra, dated 11 June 1799

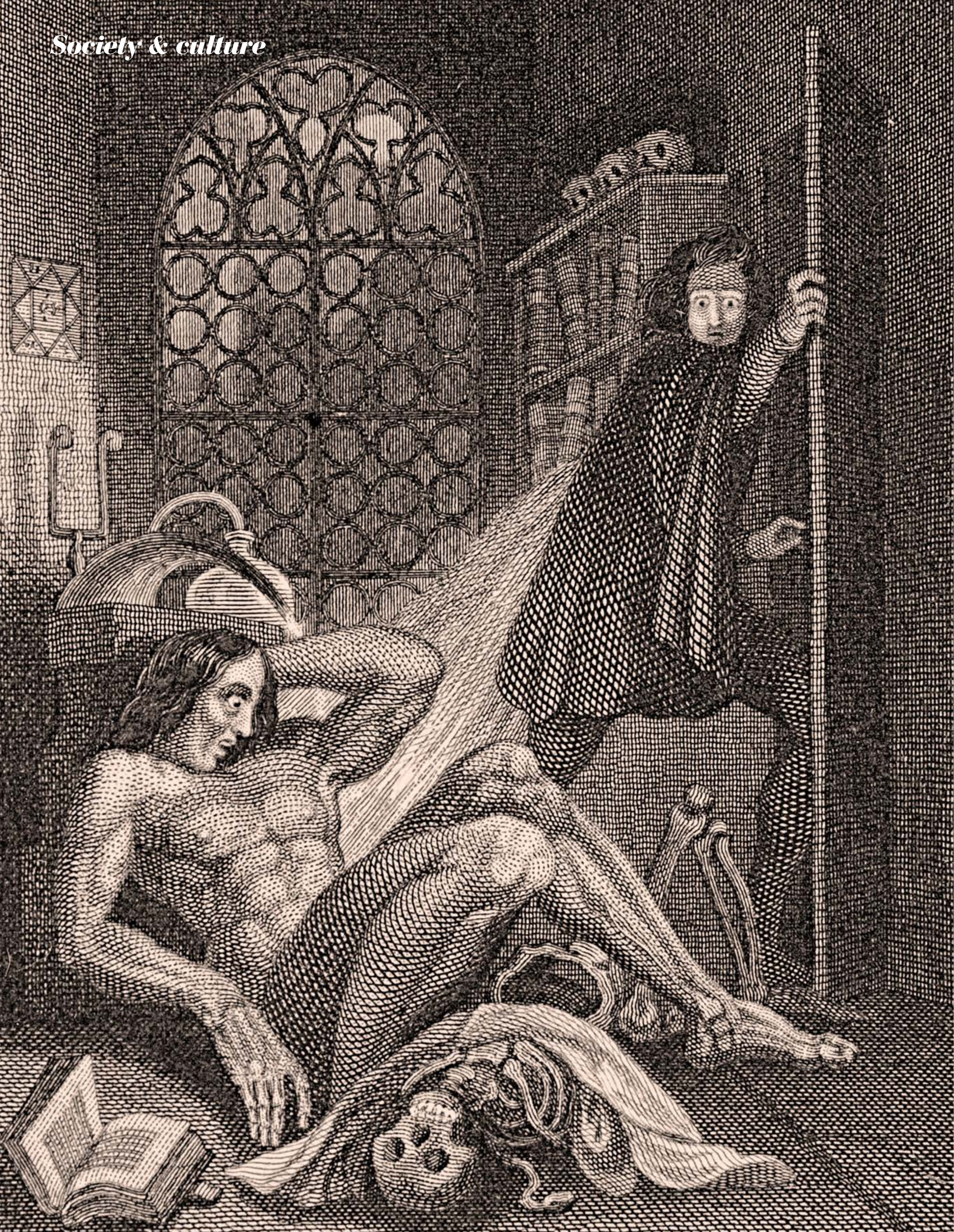
With little available sources to refer to, there are unfortunately large gaps in Austen's life that cannot be accounted for. One of the best resources we have to provide an insight into her world and everyday life is her letters, which exist thanks to her prolific correspondence with her sister, Cassandra.

However, we only have around 160 of them because Cassandra destroyed the rest of the letters after Austen's death, as well as her own responses, and edited the remaining ones. It is impossible to determine what drove Cassandra to do such a thing, with most guesses focusing on the idea that she may have been protecting her sister's reputation, if the letters contained sensitive or revealing material.

As Austen's surviving letters showcase her wit and irony, many have mourned the loss of her other letters and have subsequently criticised Cassandra for her actions. However, it has to be remembered that Cassandra also preserved a lot of her sister's work, helping her brother to publish Austen's final two novels posthumously.

It is Cassandra we have to thank for assuming more of the household duties and therefore enabling her sister to devote more of her time to writing. We may question Cassandra's actions but she did it out of love – in a letter written after Austen's death, she sadly noted that her sister “was the sun of my life, the gilder of ever pleasure, the soother of every sorrow.”

©Getty, Alamy



THE YEAR WITHOUT SUMMER

As the sky turned black and rain lashed at the shutters, four exiles began telling spooky stories – a competition that birthed one of the undisputed masterpieces of English literature: *Frankenstein*

Written by James Hoare

One summer night in 1816 lighting arced across the surface of Lake Geneva as a monster was born.

High above the lake, a band of misfits gathered around the fireplace in the elegant Villa Diodati, the home of the infamous rake, philanderer and poet Lord Byron. The party had spent endless days and nights cooped up together, besieged by the unusually dismal summer.

In all likelihood they were unaware of the causes, the eruption of Mount Tambora in Indonesia in 1815 had filled the upper atmosphere with volcanic ash, stifling the sun. The rain was torrential, the light dim and harvests failed. It was portentous, like the *Book of Revelations* was unspooling around them.

Byron's poem *Darkness*, written in July 1816, captured a growing sense of unease as, "Morn came and went – and came, and brought no day. And men forgot their passions in the dread. Of this their desolation…"

Lord Byron held court alongside his physician, Dr John Polidori, and his fellow poet, the intense and brooding Percy Bysshe Shelley. Shelley was accompanied by his teenage paramour, Mary Godwin – the two had fled England, leaving behind Shelley's wife – and her step-sister, Claire Clairmont, who harboured ambitions to be the latest of Byron syphilitic conquests.

The 18-year-old Mary Godwin could more than hold her own. Her mother, Mary Wollstonecraft, was an early feminist, and her father, William Godwin, a prominent liberal philosopher. Godwin educated her himself, noting approvingly that she was "singularly bold, somewhat imperious, and active of mind. Her desire of knowledge is great, and her perseverance in everything she undertakes almost invincible".

Shelley, as with many of the great poets and philosophers of the day, was a regular visitor to the Godwin home and the two fell in love. According to popular legend, the then 17-year-old lost her virginity to the penniless 22-year-old radical on the grave of her mother. Godwin disapproved – among other things, Shelley had promised and failed to pay off his immense debts – and the two eloped, taking Mary's step-sister with them, leaving Shelley's pregnant wife.

Described by Mary as possessing "wild, intellectual, unearthly looks", the reality of life with Percy soon bit. She was pregnant, Shelley was clearly sleeping with her step-sister, his wife, Harriet, had given birth, and he was trying to set her up with one of their mutual friends who she initially despised. She believed in free love in principle, but in reality Percy was her soulmate and she had to swallow down the pain in the name of love.

Their child was born two months premature and soon died, plunging Mary into deep depression. With an echo of the themes that would later make her famous, she wrote in her diary: "[I had a] dream that my little baby came to life again; that it had only been cold, and that we rubbed it before the fire, and it lived."

By the summer of 1816 and the party on the shores of Lake Geneva, she had recovered – as much as anyone can recover from such a trauma – but at 18 she had lived, loved and endured much. The dim half-light of the so-called 'Year Without Summer' must have fit her mood perfectly. The long and gloomy evening became increasingly intense. Polidori had grown infatuated with Mary, Clairmont remained obsessed with Byron, and Shelley slipped ever further into the grip of anxiety as the environment seemed to press down on his fragile mind.

The mood leant itself to morbidity and the assembled poured over *Fantasmagoriana* (1812), a French anthology of German ghost stories. One evening Byron treated them to a theatrical reading of Samuel Taylor Coleridge's poem *Christabel*, in which a predatory serpent of Greek mythology – the Lamia – seeks to possess the innocent Christabel. Lost in the moment, Shelley fled the room screaming, claiming later that he had become transfixed by the image of a woman with eyes where her nipples should have been.

Byron issued the group with a challenge to go off and write a ghost story – pestering them each morning for their progress. Mary gave it so much more than either of the great poets gathered among them – and the good doctor acquitted himself pretty well too.

Byron produced a fragmentary vampire story (published, unfinished, in a 1819 collection) inspired by a folk tale he had heard when travelling in the Balkans, while Polidori offered *The Vampyre* (published 1819), in which a thinly disguised parody of Byron, Lord Ruthven, arrives in London to prey on society ladies. Polidori's effort is regarded the first literary vampire story, creating tone and tropes that would inspire Bram Stoker in the writing of *Dracula*.

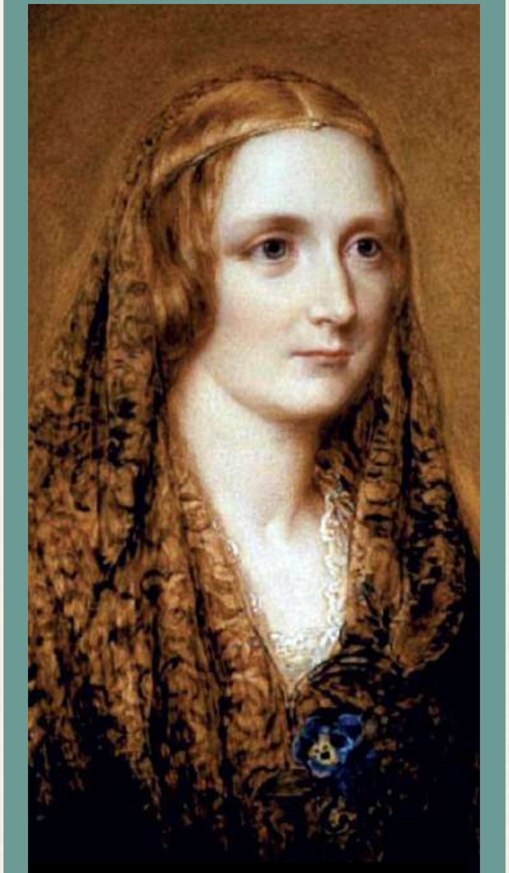
Did Percy Shelley write Frankenstein?

For as long as women have stuck their heads above the parapet, people have been all too eager to credit their achievements to men.

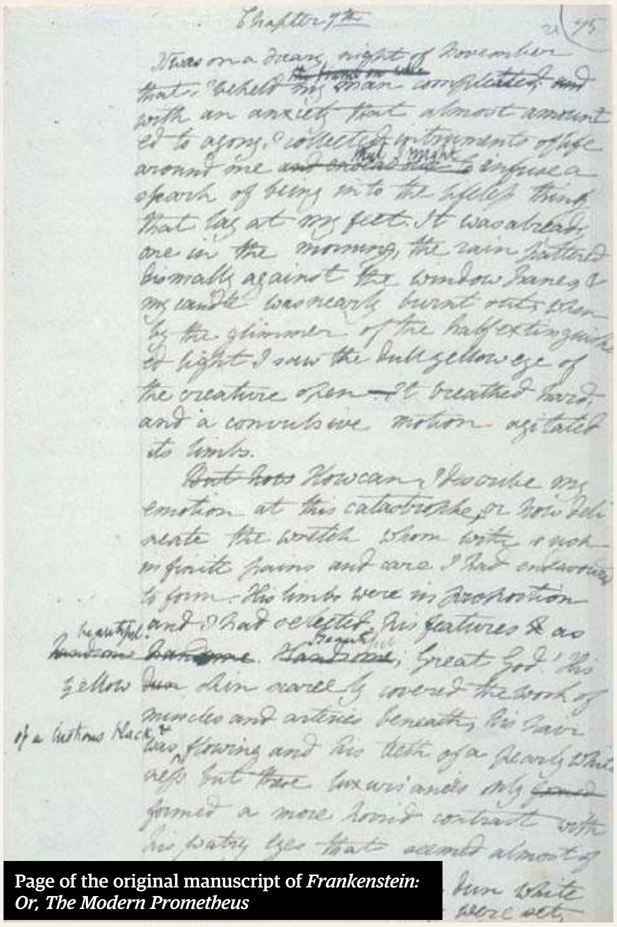
Frankenstein was initially published anonymously in 1818 and when one critic suggested that Percy Shelley was the author, Mary snapped back in a letter that, "I am anxious to prevent your continuing in the mistake of supposing Mr Shelley guilty of a juvenile attempt of mine; to which – from its being written at an early age – I abstained from putting my name."

There's no denying that Percy played an important role in *Frankenstein*, and his notes and edits can be seen on the original manuscript, but there's no real reason to suspect it was written by anyone other than Mary. The notes and letters between the two represent an active dialogue between writer and editor, with Mary assuring her husband, "I give you carte blanche to make what alterations you please". None of which makes the slightest bit of sense if Percy were the real author.

Those who argue that the book's strident tones on liberty and the creator's responsibility to its creation are proof of Percy Shelley's hand, seem to ignore that the two were clearly of similar mind – and that both clearly owe a great debt to her father, the political philosopher William Godwin.



Reginald Easton's 1857 miniature of Mary Shelley is allegedly drawn from her death mask



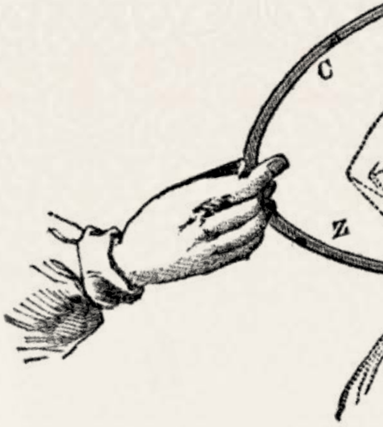
Chapter 7th

21 95

It was on a dreary night of November that I beheld my man completed; ~~and~~ with an anxiety that almost amounted to agony I collected the instruments of life around me ~~[illegible]~~ that I might infuse a spark of being into the lifeless thing that lay at my feet. It was already one in the morning, the rain pattered dismally against the window panes & my candle was nearly burnt out, when by the glimmer of the half extinguished light I saw the dull yellow eye of the creature open — It breathed hard, and a convulsive motion agitated its limbs.

~~But how~~ How can I describe my emotion at this catastrophe, or how deli neate the wretch whom with such infinite pains and care I had endeavoured to form. His limbs were in proportion and I had selected his features as beautiful ~~handsome~~ ~~[illegible]~~. ~~Handsome~~ Beautiful! Great God! His yellow ~~skin~~ skin scarcely covered the work of muscles and arteries beneath; his hair of a lustrous black & was flowing and his teeth of a pearly whiteness but these luxuriances only ~~[illegible]~~ formed a more horrid contrast with his watery eyes that seemed almost of [illegible] dun white [illegible] were set

Page of the original manuscript of *Frankenstein: Or, The Modern Prometheus*



Italian scientist Luigi Galvani used electrodes to stimulate the muscles of a dead frog, causing the legs to twitch

Mary, however, wrote what would become *Frankenstein: Or, The Modern Prometheus* (published 1818), a potent culmination of ideas, fears and personal tragedy.

"Night waned upon this talk," she explained in the 1831 preface to the novel, "and even the witching hour had gone by before we retired to rest. When I placed my head on my pillow I did not sleep, nor could I be said to think. My imagination, unbidden, possessed and guided me, gifting the successive images that arose in my mind with a vividness far beyond the usual bounds of reverie. I saw – with shut eyes, but acute mental vision – I saw the pale student of the unhallowed arts kneeling beside the thing he had put together. I saw the hideous phantasm of a man stretched out, and then, on the working of some powerful engine show signs of life and stir with an uneasy, half-vital motion." Shelley didn't write anything, but he did encourage Mary to expand her short story into a full novel.

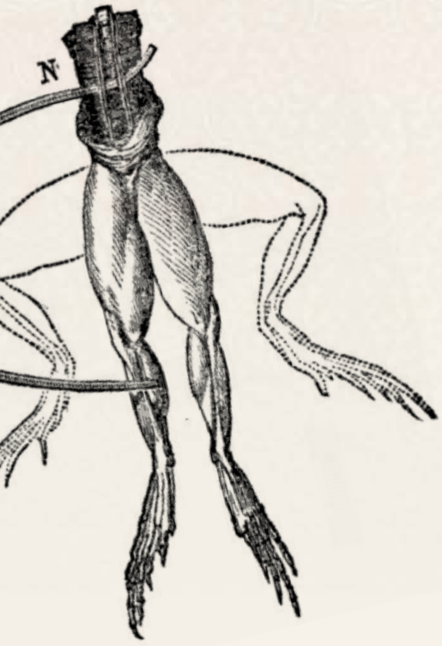
> "They discussed philosophy, science and emerging pseudosciences"

Over the unnaturally cold June nights at Villa Diodati, the group discussed philosophy, science and emerging pseudosciences, with Dr Polidori as a foil to the more outlandish pronouncements of Byron and Shelley. The humanist ideals of the American and French Revolutions had stolen authority from kings and gifted them to the common man, while emerging fields of scientific study conspired to seize authority from God himself.

In 1780 Luigi Galvani conducted one of the first experiments into bioelectricity when he used an electric shock to stimulate the muscles of a dead frog, making them jerk and twitch as if returned to life. Later, in 1803, Giovanni Aldini performed a far more gruesome feat with the corpse of a hanged man, making him lift a leg, an arm and open one eye in a parody of life. To many, it seemed like electricity might really hold the key to reanimation of the dead.

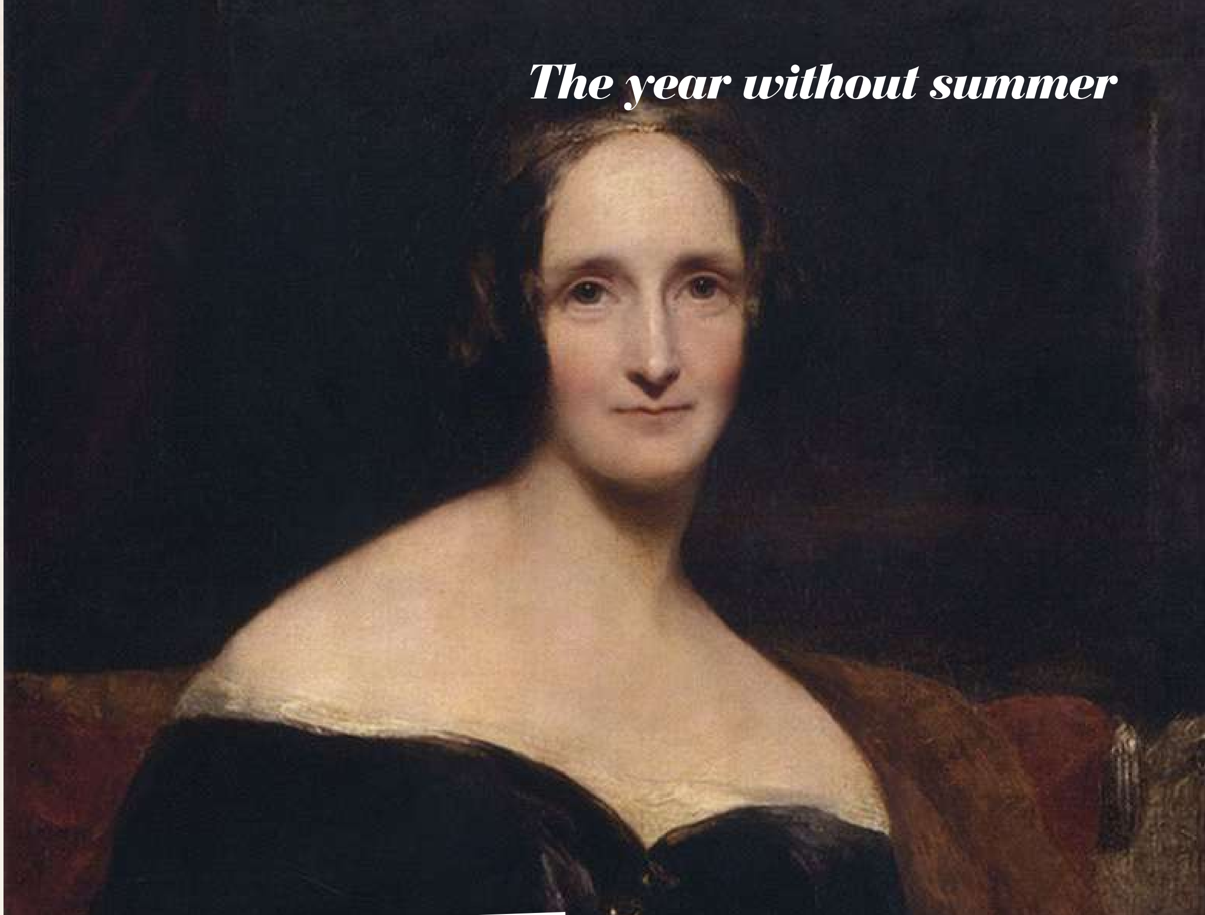
Beyond galvanism, the Scottish surgeon Dr John Hunter had pioneered transplants – creating a boom industry in the wealthy buying healthy teeth from the poor to replace their own rotten chompers – and artificial insemination.

Much of *Frankenstein* reflects the summer by Lake Geneva – it is after all the home of Victor Frankenstein, and many of the Swiss locations described in the novel were visited by Mary. The long and energetic debates about reanimation and pseudoscience, by the flash of the electrical storms, underwrote the central premise of the text. The character of Victor Frankenstein straddles the high ideals of the Enlightenment and the lusts of the Romantic period, inspired by Percy. Shelley first published his work under the pen name Victor, and like

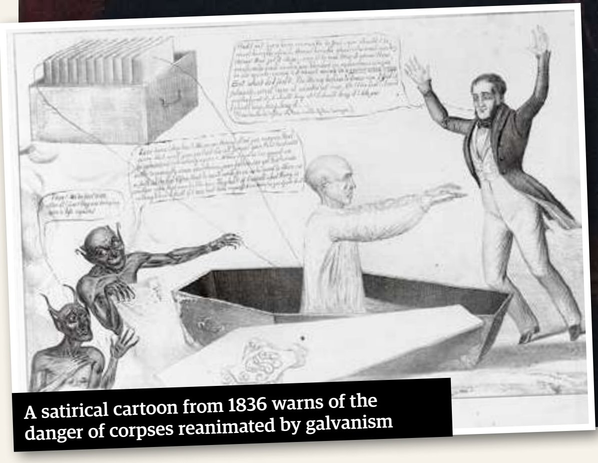


Frankenstein he had a beloved sister called Elizabeth. Both men were born to noble families who grew to scorn them, and while at Eton Shelley conducted experiments in electricity and explosives. It's not an entirely flattering portrait; it is, after all, Frankenstein's hubris and obsession that unleashes a tidal wave of misery.

That however is what makes *Frankenstein* truly remarkable as a novel. As much as it is a masterpiece of Gothic horror, romantic fiction, or science fiction, it also truly captures the voice and pain of this incredible young woman.

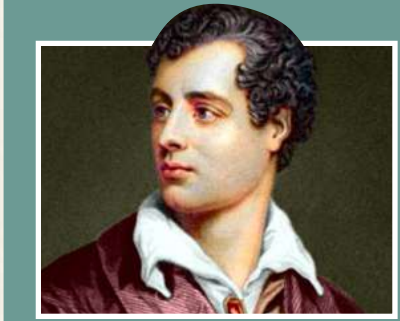


Mary Shelley at the age of 42 by painter Richard Rothwell



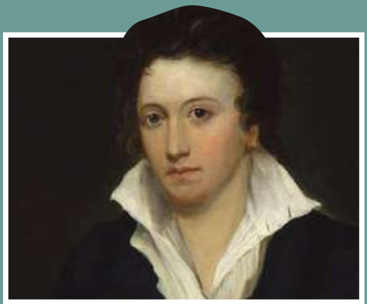
A satirical cartoon from 1836 warns of the danger of corpses reanimated by galvanism

The holidaymakers of Villa Diodati



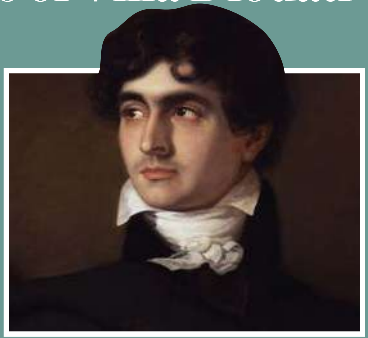
Lord Byron

Famously described as 'mad, bad and dangerous to know', George Gordon Byron was infamous not just for his incredible body of work, but for his scandalous sexual liaisons with men and women alike, including having a child with his half-sister. By 21 he had both gonorrhoea and syphilis, but it did little to dim his charisma or celebrity.



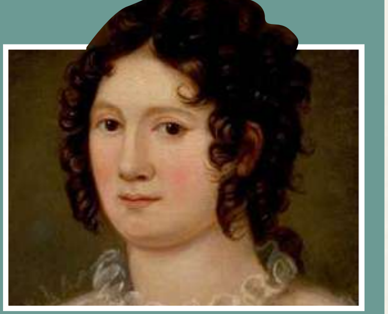
Percy Bysshe Shelley

Shelley was a political radical from aristocratic stock who caused scandal by embracing free love and abandoning his wife and children to gallivant around Europe with Mary and Claire. One of the greatest Romantic poets, the heart-rending beauty of his work is compounded by his tragic death by drowning at the age of 29.



John William Polidori

Byron's personal physician and travelling companion, Polidori kept a diary of his European travels for publication, but it was heavily censored and the original was lost. His entry to the 'ghost story' challenge, *The Vampyre*, is one of the most influential vampire novels of all time, although it was originally attributed to Byron.



Claire Clairmont

Daughter of William Godwin's second wife Mary, Clairmont had an affair with Byron in Britain and urged her step-sister to take her to Switzerland so she could have a shot at becoming his mistress. She had a daughter by Byron in 1817, but he refused to see her and only accepted Allegra on the condition that Clairmont keep her distance.

© WIKI

HEROES OF LITERATURE

In the long years of the Georgian era, literary legends were made who endure to this day

Written by Catherine Curzon

The Georgian Era was a seminal period in the history of literature. As the landscape of Great Britain changed, so too did the literary style.

With the expiration of the Licensing of the Press Act in 1695, press censorship was lifted. By the time George I was crowned nearly 20 years later, political pamphlets and literature were hugely popular and often satirical, critical or downright arch in manner. Corresponding Societies were formed to allow the exchange of radical ideas, while during the American Revolutionary War and the French Revolution, pamphleteers were tireless in their production of tracts intended to shape public opinion.

With the dawn of the Age of Enlightenment, scientific literature found a new expression and audience, while seminal social works called for the abolition of slavery, Colonial independence and even revolution.

Yet as Enlightenment literature stressed the Augustan values of order and debate, the rise of the novel allowed for a more creative expression. From the excitement caused by the publication of *Robinson Crusoe* in 1719, the fashion for prose narrative exploded. Epistolary novels became highly fashionable. Works such as *Tom Jones*, filled with sauce and satire, were lapped up. As the century drew to a close and readers wanted something a little more florid, Romanticism swooned into the spotlight with a focus not on reason but on emotion, championed by the likes of Byron and Shelley.

The reputations of these bright young things and sabre rattlers endure today as some of the most iconic figures global literature has ever seen.

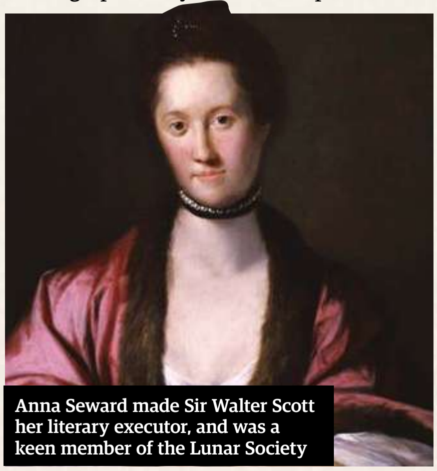
Anna Seward

1742-1809

Anna Seward, the so-called Swan of Lichfield, made her name as a poet

Anna Seward was a popular poet thanks to her sentimental, romantic verses, several of which were dedicated to her close confidante, Honora Sneyd. Seward was a leading light of Lichfield's literary circle, as well as the Lunar Society, where her contemporaries included Erasmus Darwin, whose biography she later wrote. Though primarily known as a poet, Seward published a sentimental poetical novel, *Louisa*, which discussed themes of love and marriage.

As a female poet, Seward was regarded as something of a novelty, but she was also an authority on literature. Following her death, Sir Walter Scott edited and prefaced three volumes of Seward's poems and correspondence. Though her legacy was neglected, interest in Seward has been renewed in recent years.


Anna Seward made Sir Walter Scott her literary executor, and was a keen member of the Lunar Society

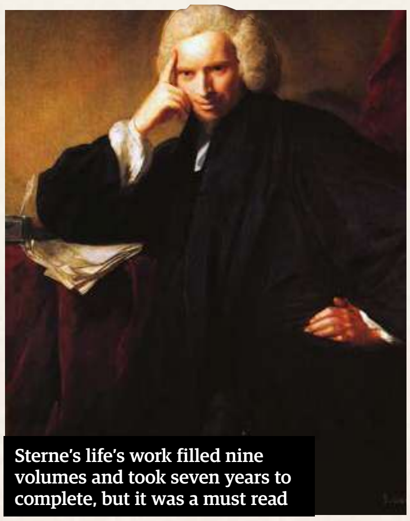
Laurence Sterne

1713-1768

With *Tristram Shandy*, Laurence Sterne made his name with a revolutionary approach to literature

Irish-born Laurence Sterne seemed destined for the respectable life of a Yorkshire clergyman until he wrote *A Political Romance*, a satirical novel that effectively ended his career in the church. The book was burned but Sterne, undeterred, gave up his parish and began work on his masterpiece, *The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy, Gentleman*.

Tristram Shandy eventually spanned nine volumes and seven years, ending a year before Sterne's death. This fictional biography of the quintessential Georgian rogue is anything but routine, and features lengthy digressions. The central story of Tristram Shandy's life is barely touched upon. Filled with references to Sterne's contemporaries and using multiple literary devices, the novel continues to win new fans even in today's modern world.


Sterne's life's work filled nine volumes and took seven years to complete, but it was a must read

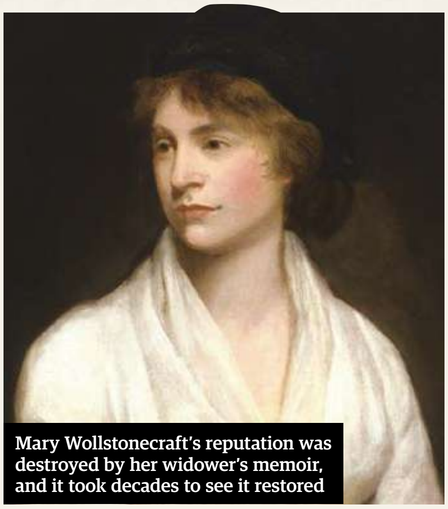
Mary Wollstonecraft

1759-1797

Mary Wollstonecraft made waves and broke new ground with her vindications

When Mary Wollstonecraft published *A Vindication on the Rights of Woman* in 1792, she set the British literary world alight. Her work was unique, calling as it did for women to be given a full education and containing a heartfelt plea for women to recognise their intellectual abilities and refuse to be pigeonholed by a society that placed too much emphasis on external beauty.

Following Wollstonecraft's death in 1797 her widower, William Godwin, wrote a biography of his late wife that he hoped would honour her memory. Instead, the details of her unorthodox lifestyle and suicide attempts destroyed her reputation for decades, plunging her into obscurity. By the 20th century, figures such as Virginia Woolf had begun to champion Wollstonecraft once more and she was finally hailed as a pioneer for the rights of women. Today she is lauded as one of the most important thinkers of her age.



Mary Wollstonecraft's reputation was destroyed by her widower's memoir, and it took decades to see it restored

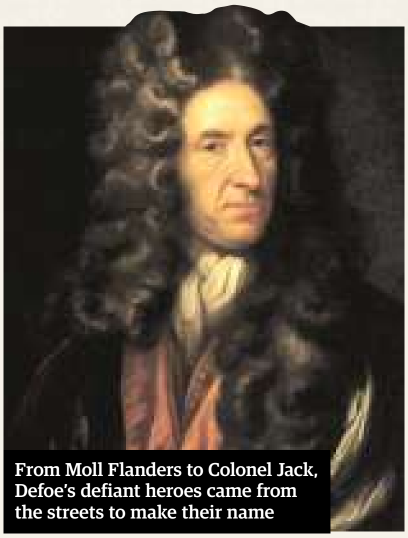
Daniel Defoe

1660-1731

Spy, author, pamphleteer and more, Daniel Defoe pulled many literary punches

Though little is known of Daniel Defoe's early life, when it comes to his literary career, there can be no doubt about his importance. He is widely regarded as the father of the English novel, with *Robinson Crusoe* considered by many to be a contender for the title of the first narrative English novel. In works such as *Moll Flanders* he popularised the anti-hero, creating protagonists who were far from model citizens, as well as spotlighting female lead characters, a highly unusual device at the time.

Yet Defoe was already 59 years old when he published his masterpiece and he had enjoyed a long and often controversial career as a journalist and political pamphleteer, occasionally spending time in prison and the pillory as a result. Defoe followed *Robinson Crusoe* with several further novels while remaining active as a political writer, producing a number of essays, pamphlets and opinion pieces.



From Moll Flanders to Colonel Jack, Defoe's defiant heroes came from the streets to make their name

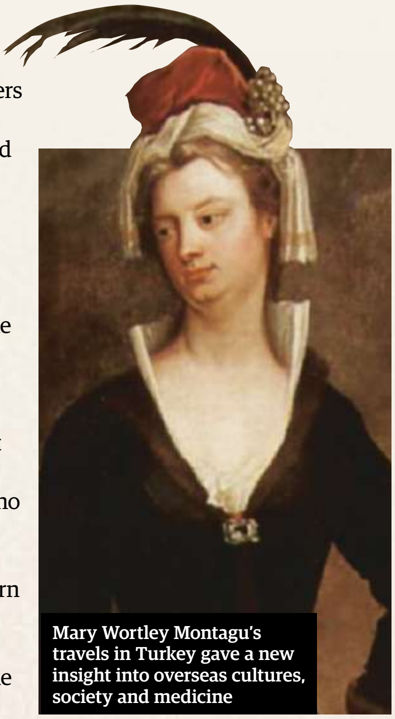
Lady Mary Wortley Montagu

1689-1762

Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's treasure trove of letters offers a unique glimpse at a remarkable life

As wife of the British ambassador to Turkey, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu made her mark on the literary world thanks to her letters from the Ottoman Empire, the first time a Western woman had recorded observations of the Muslim world. Though she also wrote poetry, it is this correspondence that has sealed Montagu's reputation.

In the letters, Montagu also sought to address inaccuracies in the writings of the men who had gone before her, and provided a uniquely female take on the world she found in Turkey. She saw a side of life that her male counterparts did not, and became an inspiration to women who sought similar adventures of their own. Lady Mary continued to write throughout her life, and on her return to England she became a medical pioneer, introducing the ancient Eastern practice of variolation for the treatment of smallpox.



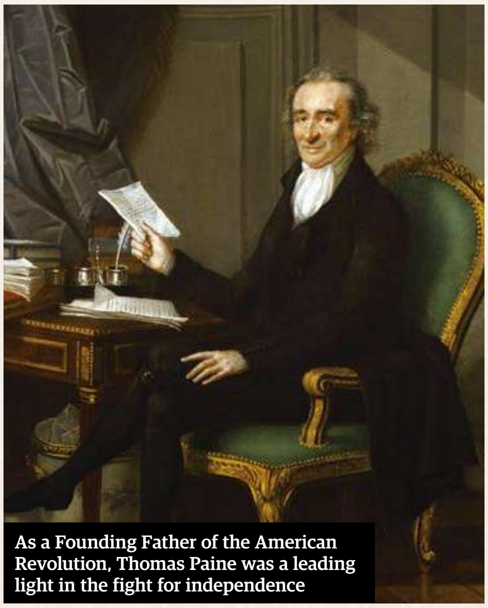
Mary Wortley Montagu's travels in Turkey gave a new insight into overseas cultures, society and medicine

Thomas Paine

1737-1809

From Norfolk to New York, Thomas Paine blazed a trail of revolution

Founding Father Thomas Paine enjoys a vital place in the history of the world thanks to his role in the American Revolution. He arrived in America in 1774 and within two years later had published his seminal pamphlet, *Common Sense*, which called for independence. The anonymous work was an instant hit, providing a call to action for a populace that was tired of its distant British rulers. So central to the revolutionary movement was *Common Sense* that it has led some scholars to credit Paine with the title of Father of the American Revolution. Paine's later travels took him to France in the midst of Revolution. In England, where he was seen as a threat to the monarchy, he became a wanted man. His radical philosophy and calls for equality made him a divisive figure, and an icon of free thinkers.



As a Founding Father of the American Revolution, Thomas Paine was a leading light in the fight for independence

© Wiki

Frances Burney

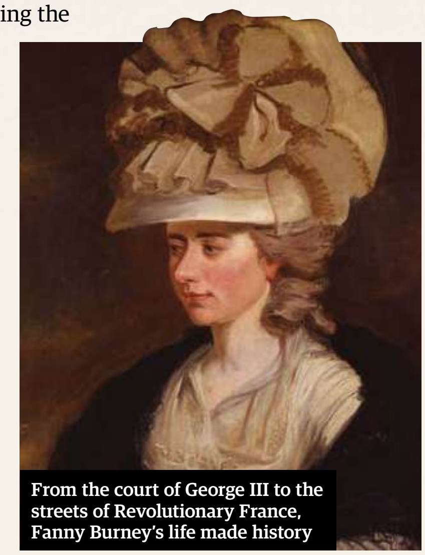
1752-1840

The 'mother of English fiction', Fanny Burney created an indispensable record of Georgian life

Fanny Burney was still young when she burst onto the literary scene in 1778 with her novel, *Evelina*, an epistolary novel of manners that made her one of the most famous women in England. Burney went on to publish several novels, while her diaries provide us with an invaluable record of life in the court of George III, who she saw throughout his periods of mental illness.

Burney continued to write during the decade she spent living with her French husband in his native land, where he was a favourite of Napoleon. It was here that she underwent a mastectomy, an experience that she recorded in unflinchingly agonising detail.

Burney's work did much to make female novelists respectable and she produced novels that any young lady could read without censure. These weren't sentimental pieces on the whole, but were filled with female protagonists who were as intelligent, humorous and ambitious as the author herself.



From the court of George III to the streets of Revolutionary France, Fanny Burney's life made history

William Blake

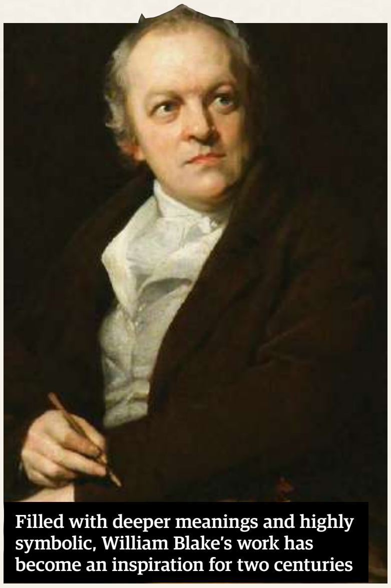
1757-1827

Little recognised in his lifetime, William Blake has since become revered as a visionary

From humble beginnings and a school career that ended at the age of 10, William Blake carved out a career as a printmaker, poet and painter. His unique view of the world found artistic expression in richly symbolic works that continue to fascinate scholars today.

Blake's works address topics including spirituality, love, religion and the very essence of the human condition itself. Though he was undoubtedly one of the most important figures of the Romantic movement and an unapologetic freethinker, his idiosyncratic styles and manner led many to think him insane – his works received little recognition during his lifetime.

Only after his death did Blake receive the acclaim he deserved, initially thanks to Alexander Gilchrist's biography. He became an icon to the generation of artists that followed, inspiring the members of the Pre-Raphaelite and Modernist movements, not to mention the creators of fantasy who followed.



Filled with deeper meanings and highly symbolic, William Blake's work has become an inspiration for two centuries

Mary Robinson

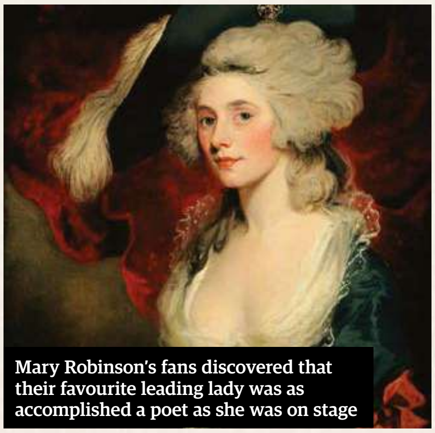
1757-1800

Scandalous, celebrated and tragic, Mary Robinson truly was 'the English Sappho'

Though she first came to prominence as a popular actress and mistress to the Prince of Wales, Mary Robinson also enjoyed an anonymous literary career, contributing poems to the Della Cruscan movement. When speculation as to her identity was at its height, she revealed herself and began publishing Romantic poetry under her own name. Though Robinson's notoriety certainly helped sales, reviews were favourable and she became a popular literary figure.

An accomplished novelist and poet, as Robinson's skills developed she focused on subjects including political oppression and misogyny. Later works were self-reflective, touched with the sense of melancholy and regret.

During Robinson's lifetime the focus was squarely on her sex life and celebrity but thanks to later scholars, she has been rightly celebrated for her championing of early feminism and the autobiographical elements that are woven throughout her works, as well as her dedication to equality and fairness.



Mary Robinson's fans discovered that their favourite leading lady was as accomplished a poet as she was on stage

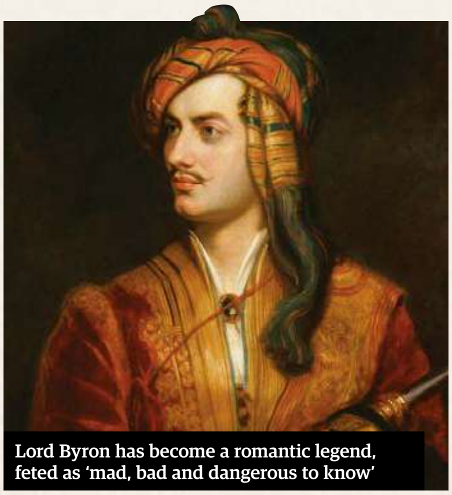
Lord Byron

1788-1824

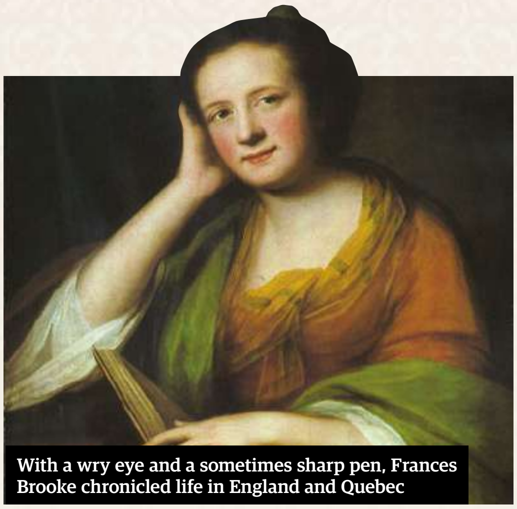
Mercurial and glamorous, Lord Byron remains one of the most infamous figures of his age

Among the celebrated Romantics of the Georgian era, none have become more famous than Byron. Extravagant, flamboyant and filled with turmoil, he created one of the most recognisable literary figures in British history, the Byronic hero. By turns passionate, reflective and dangerous, these flawed heroes were Byron all over.

Lord Byron's works cannot be categorised and he enjoyed success across a broad spectrum of literary forms. His personal life was as famous as works that included *Don Juan* and *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* and wherever Byron went, his fans followed. Whether writing heartfelt expressions of desire or calling for freedom and rights for the poor both on the page and the floor of the House of Lords, few others were able to rise to his superstar heights. Byron's legacy hasn't dimmed in the years since his death. With each new generation readers discover his work afresh and he remains the quintessential Romantic poet.



Lord Byron has become a romantic legend, feted as 'mad, bad and dangerous to know'



With a wry eye and a sometimes sharp pen, Frances Brooke chronicled life in England and Quebec

Frances Brooke

1724-1789

Novelist, commentator and translator, Frances Brooke was a woman of many talents

Frances Brooke began her career as the wry, self-reliant Mary Singleton, Spinster, editor of *Old Maid*, her own periodical. After the publication of her first novel, she joined her husband in Quebec, where he was a British military chaplain and it was here that she wrote *The History of Emily Montague*, which led some to credit her as North America's first ever novelist. The book was published on her return to England and introduced readers to the Quebecois people and lifestyle, as well as the blending of cultures in the colonies.

In her novels, Brooke's ironic voice and willingness to experiment with form made her a popular choice for both critics and public, and she did much to popularise the developing form.

Jonathan Swift

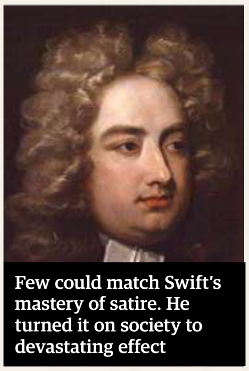
1667-1745

As the creator of *Gulliver's Travels*, Swift made satire into an art form

It can be fairly argued that few men did more to popularise satire than Jonathan Swift. In his hands it could be a devastating weapon, bringing society's foibles and failings vividly to the forefront. He turned the mirror on himself too, even going so far as to pen his own obituary!

Whether writing essays, novels or even sermons, Swift never lost his ability to skewer his targets. His style was rational, as befit Enlightenment philosophies, and he could couch savage critiques beneath light humour.

With targets ranging from social climbers to the British government's failure to alleviate poverty in his native Ireland, Jonathan Swift is revered as one of the voices who shaped Georgian Britain and our image of it today.



Few could match Swift's mastery of satire. He turned it on society to devastating effect

Elizabeth Carter

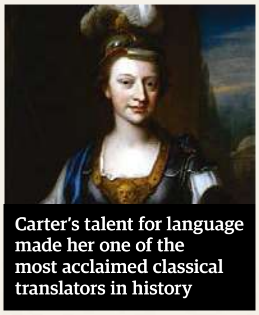
1717-1806

Polymath Elizabeth Carter was a member of the distinguished Bluestocking Circle

Alongside the likes of Hannah More, Charlotte Lennox and Hester Thrale, Elizabeth Carter was a member of the Bluestocking Circle. This informal group of emphasised education, intellectual pursuits and recognition for women.

A fiercely intelligent child, Carter taught herself a number of languages. She used this talent to make her name as an academic translator of classical texts. It was her translation of *All The Works Of Epictetus, Which Are Now Extant*, which secured her reputation and financial security.

Carter became a literary celebrity and a favourite of the royal family, forever lauded for her sensitive, intelligent interpretations of the classics that she took under her wing.



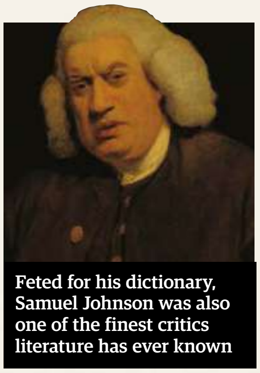
Carter's talent for language made her one of the most acclaimed classical translators in history

Samuel Johnson

1709-1784

The creator of the first authoritative English dictionary, Samuel Johnson has become a legend

Samuel Johnson's dictionary began its nine-year journey to publication thanks to a commission from a group of influential publishers, who gave him three years in which to complete the task. Though he overran somewhat, the monumental work was eventually published to enormous acclaim. In the public consciousness, it remains his most well-known creation. Yet Johnson's reputation doesn't rest on this single work. As an essayist, he left behind an unmatched body of work. He is regarded now as one of the finest critics ever to have put pen to paper, showing an understanding and appreciation of literature that has yet to be surpassed.



Feted for his dictionary, Samuel Johnson was also one of the finest critics literature has ever known

Hester Thrale

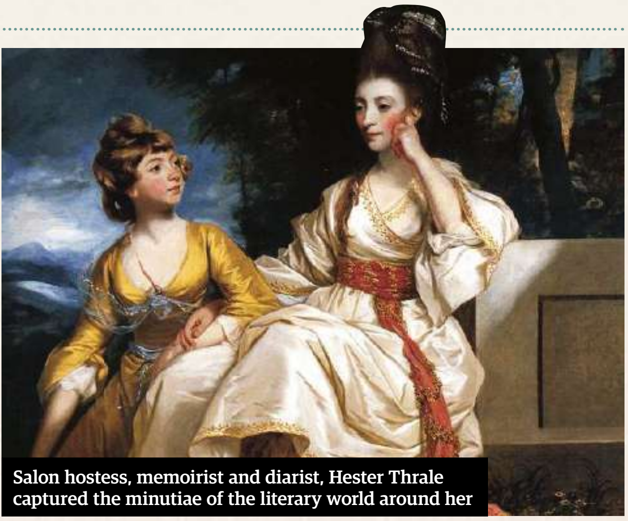
1741-1821

Historian, diarist and Bluestocking, Hester Thrale championed the achievements of women

As hostess of one of London's most glittering literary salons, Hester Thrale was a confidante of established figures including Johnson and Boswell, as well hopefuls including protégé, Fanny Burney.

Thrale's most important works are *Anecdotes of the Late Samuel Johnson*, a personal take on her close friend, and published *Thraliana*, her collected diaries. She also published *Retrospection*, a record of historical events from a female perspective that didn't endear her to some male critics!

Thraliana is an irresistible and priceless look at the inner circle of the upper classes of Georgian England. Offering a glimpse into the psychology of Thrale and the world in which she moved, it's little wonder that it fascinates readers today.



Salon hostess, memoirist and diarist, Hester Thrale captured the minutiae of the literary world around her

10 ARTISTS THAT SHAPED THE GEORGIAN ERA

In an age of changing dynasties and evolving ideas, the art world kept pace and proved that Britain deserved to be recognised as a hub of creativity and innovation

Written by Philippa Grafton

The Italians had the Renaissance in the 14th century; the Dutch had the Golden Age in the 17th century; the French had Impressionism at the close of the 19th century – every nation has enjoyed glory days of art. On English soil, it was the Georgian era that came to define the heady heights of British art. As this resurgence of art catapulted into a cultural revolution, new names joined those of the Great Masters – alongside Rembrandt stood Reynolds, while Turner took his rightful place next to Titian. A wave of new artists came to the fore, proving that what the Italians and Dutch had done before them, these unassuming Brits could do just as well.

This blossoming talent transcended more than just art; it was the birth of laws, societies and education. Newly formed groups, such as the Society of Artists of Great Britain, grew in popularity, but none more so than the Royal Academy, founded in 1768. The Royal Academy proved pivotal in elevating art and bringing it to the masses. For artists, it meant new opportunities to exhibit work. For aspiring artists, the chance of taking up a formal education at the Royal Academy Schools – the first formal art school in Britain – could make a career.

Where art was conventional during the Stuart era, under the Hanoverians it became more enlightened, questioning not only the conventions of the medium, but society itself. Satire and moralising art questioned and commented on the very structure of contemporary British society.

Sir Godfrey Kneller

1646-1723

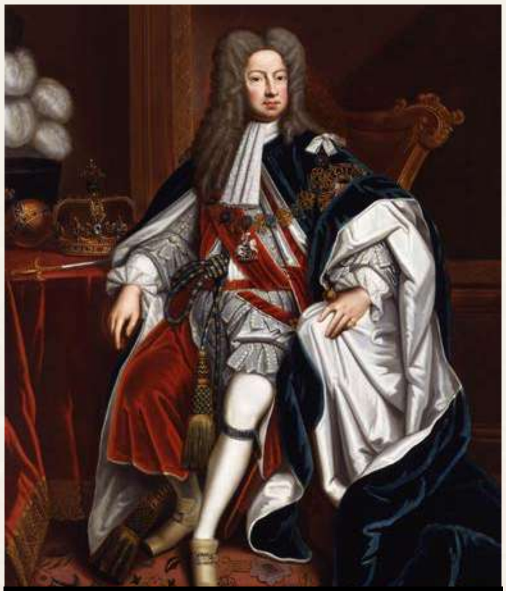
Painter to the Stuart dynasty, Kneller's portraits of the new Hanoverian kings maintained some semblance of continuity in an age of uproar

Originally portrait painter to the Stuarts, Godfrey Kneller became one of the most prominent artists of his generation. Born Gottfried Kniller in Lübeck to a family of portrait painters, the young boy was quick to pick up the family trade. Having shown promise when young, Kneller trained under the celebrated Ferdinand Bol, an artist who was then better known and more commercially successful than his own master, Rembrandt.

In the late 1670s, Kneller and his brother moved to England, allegedly because Kneller was desperate to see the paintings of Van Dyck. Almost immediately, Kneller earned commissions from the illegitimate son of Charles II, the Duke of Monmouth. This was Kneller's big break. In London, the artist set up his own portrait studio, which churned out work on an industrial scale.

Echoing the splendour of his idol's work, Kneller became popular among England's ruling elite, and became a painter to the kings and queens of England and later Great Britain. Kneller's life once again mirrored that of Van Dyck's, when William III gifted a golden chain and medal to the artist, much like Charles I had done for his court painter.

By the time the Hanoverians had ascended the throne, Kneller's reputation was cemented, unrivalled, and he continued to receive commissions from the new dynasty. Having been made a baronet by King George I in 1715, Kneller died just eight years later.

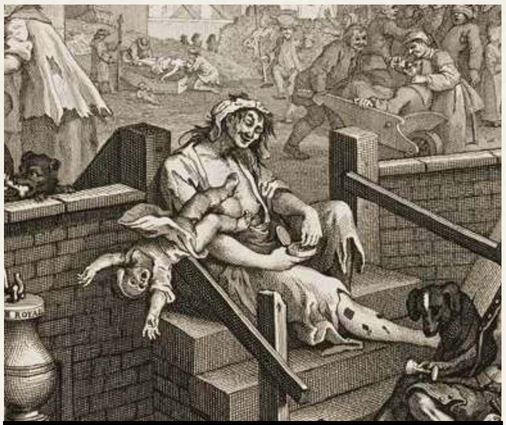


Kneller became portrait painter to the kings, depicting the last of the Stuarts, as well as King George I

William Hogarth

1697-1764

Few artists' fame has endured the test of time the way that Hogarth's has



While Hogarth was a renowned portrait painter and satirist, he also created engravings that examined the immorality of 18th-century society, such as *Gin Lane*

Born in London, Hogarth trained as an engraver, but spent his free time indulging his passion for sketching people on the streets. Having shown exceptional skill, Hogarth embarked on an engraving career in his own right and after cementing his reputation, he was appointed Serjeant Painter at the court of King George II in 1757. This had the potential to truly make Hogarth's career, as he was endowed with the responsibilities of painting and gilding within the royal household. However, Hogarth was disappointed with his own progression in the role. Yet it is not his royal commissions that gave Hogarth his long-standing reputation. Hogarth's satirical paintings and engravings, as well as his moral works, became some of his most famous pieces. In particular, a six-painting series entitled *A Harlot's Progress* depicting the fate of a young prostitute, earned him critical acclaim. Following this success, Hogarth created another series entitled *A Rake's Progress* – the two were so popular that many copied his work, leaving Hogarth to petition Parliament for a law to address it. The result was the Engravers' Copyright Act, which was one of the first copyright laws to protect original artworks and engravings.

Later success came for Hogarth after he created two prints, *Beer Street* and *Gin Lane*. The former depicted a blossoming society consuming beer, while the latter illustrated a town ruined by the effect of gin-drinking. The prints were created in support of the Gin Act of 1751.

As well as his engravings and prints, Hogarth was a renowned painter. By the 1750s he had picked up the nickname 'Painter Pugg' for featuring his pug dogs in many paintings. Over 200 years after his death in 1764, Hogarth and his beloved pug, Trump, were commemorated in a statue by Jim Mathieson in Chiswick, London.

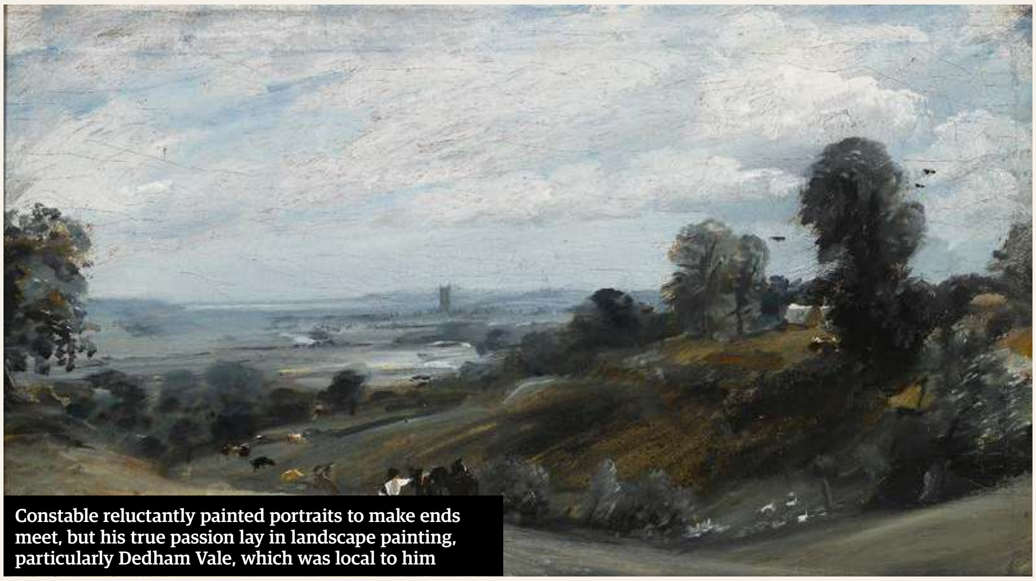
John Constable

1776-1837

Never truly appreciated in his homeland, Constable's landscapes inspired a new generation of European artists

Today, part of Suffolk is affectionately named Constable County, a testament to the landscapes painted by one of Britain's most celebrated landscape painters. Born in 1776, Constable was expected to follow in his father's footsteps by taking on the family business. However, Constable had other dreams. From a young age he took up sketching, and eventually Constable managed to convince his father to allow his younger brother to take up the business, while he took up art as a career. Constable attended the Royal Academy Schools and was determined to become a professional landscape artist, but he only achieved mild success and was forced to take up portrait painting to make a living.

Despite the fact that his work was appreciated in France, Constable stubbornly insisted that he would remain only in England, even though his work barely made an impact in contemporary British society. His legacy lived in on France, where he inspired such artists as Millet, Rousseau and Corot among others.

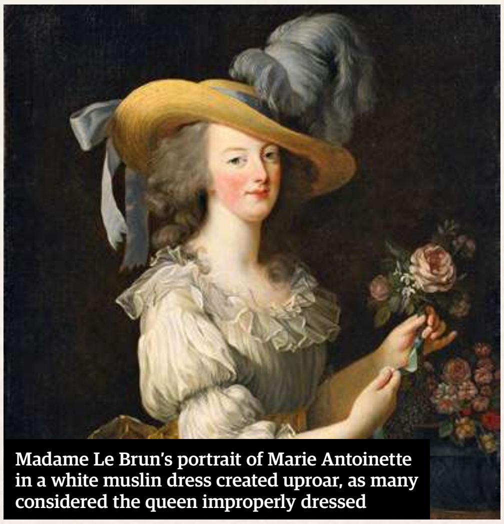


Constable reluctantly painted portraits to make ends meet, but his true passion lay in landscape painting, particularly Dedham Vale, which was local to him

Elisabeth Louise Vigée Le Brun

1755-1842

Championed by the doomed French monarchs, Le Brun's star continued to shine across Europe after the demise of the Bourbons



Madame Le Brun's portrait of Marie Antoinette in a white muslin dress created uproar, as many considered the queen improperly dressed

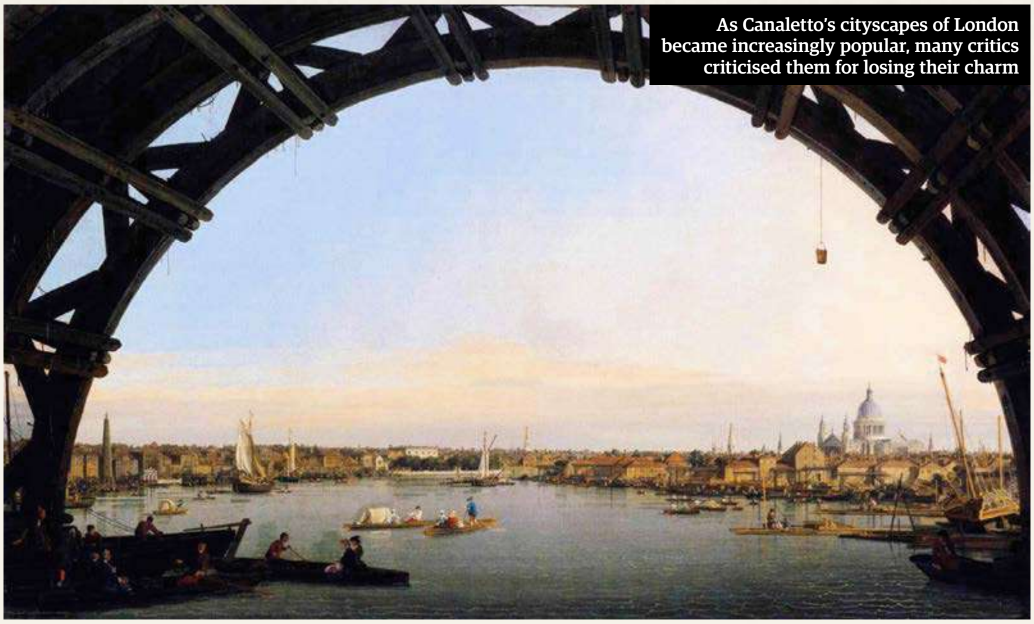
Celebrated across mainland Europe, Madame Le Brun's artwork never caught on in Georgian Britain. Born in Paris in 1755, Le Brun's father taught her the trade, but his death when she was 12 ended her education. Le Brun still slipped onto the radar of the French royals. Marie Antoinette became a patron, with the artist painting over 30 portraits of the French royal family. Marie Antoinette's influence on Le Brun's career was undeniable – after Le Brun was rejected from the Academie Royale de Peinture et de Sculpture, the queen persuaded Louis XVI to intervene.

As the French Revolution began in 1789, Le Brun went into exile. She went to Italy and Russia, where Catherine the Great commissioned portraits of family members. After brief stays in London and Switzerland, Le Brun returned to France and died in 1842.

Canaletto

1697-1768

Canaletto's dream-like landscapes of Venice became essential acquisitions for any enlightened aristocrat



As Canaletto's cityscapes of London became increasingly popular, many critics criticised them for losing their charm

Italian-born Giovanni Antonio Canal was celebrated for his idyllic scenes of his hometown of Venice. Having apprenticed with his father, he took on the name Canaletto, meaning 'Little Canal', and also took up his father's trade.

Canaletto painted from nature, capturing the city in natural light rather than from imagination, and these naturalistic qualities captured in his early work made Canaletto's art coveted, particularly by young aristocrats embarking on their Grand Tour.

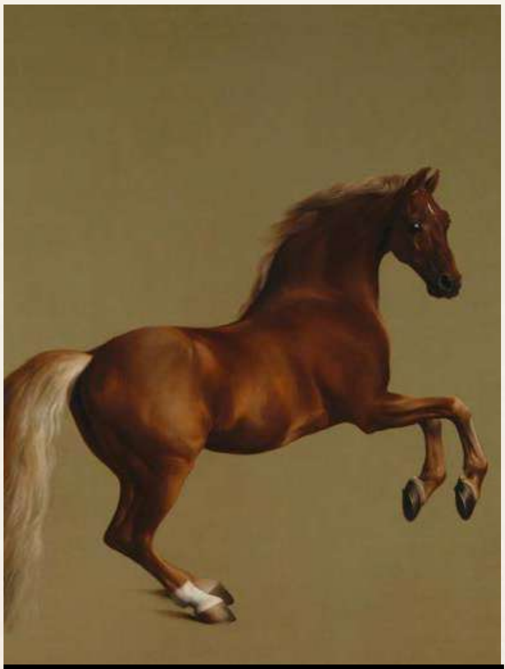
By 1746, with his tourist trade halted as a result of the War of Austrian Succession, Canaletto moved to England, where he continued his trade, this time with London cityscapes. However, life in London stunted the artists' creativity, and by 1755 he returned to Venice, continuing his Venetian scenes until his death in 1763.

George Stubbs

1724-1806

A fascination with anatomy led Stubbs to create the world's most recognisable equine portraits

Now celebrated as one of England's greatest painters, very little is known about the life of George Stubbs. Born in Liverpool, he took up a brief apprenticeship with a local engraver before he moved to York, where he took up a new position under a surgeon to study human anatomy. After a brief stint in Italy, he returned to the north of England, where he created several drawings of horse anatomy. These remarkable sketches caught the eye of British aristocrats, and Stubbs began painting equestrian portraits, eventually painting for the Prince of Wales (later King George IV) in 1791. As well as his famous equestrian and equine portraits, Stubbs painted other animals, most notably dogs. However, he also painted some of the first kangaroos, lions, tigers, cheetahs and rhinos.



Stubbs' most famous horse painting, entitled *Whistlejacket*, hangs in the National Gallery in London

Angelica Kauffman

1741-1807

Kauffman defied society's expectations of women to become one of the era's most celebrated artists

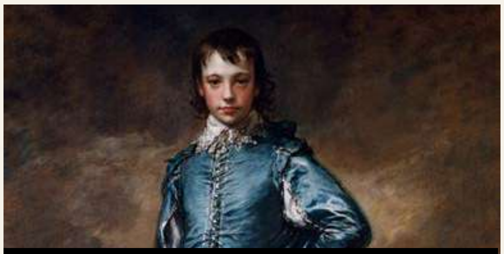
A child prodigy, Angelica Kauffman was destined to leave her mark on history. Born to a father trained as a muralist and a mother who had mastered several languages, Angelica travelled Europe, making sure that she learnt languages and arts wherever she went.

In 1762 Kauffman travelled around Italy, becoming widely championed for her talents and charm. Her language skills made her a popular portrait painter for visitors to Italy, and in 1765 she moved to England and struck up a friendship with the era's most celebrated artist, Sir Joshua Reynolds. In 1768, Kauffman was listed along with Reynolds and several other artists as one of the founders of the Royal Academy. Through the Royal Academy, Kauffman exhibited historical paintings, and while her portraiture was acclaimed at the time, her history paintings remained relatively unrecognised.

Thomas Gainsborough

1727-1788

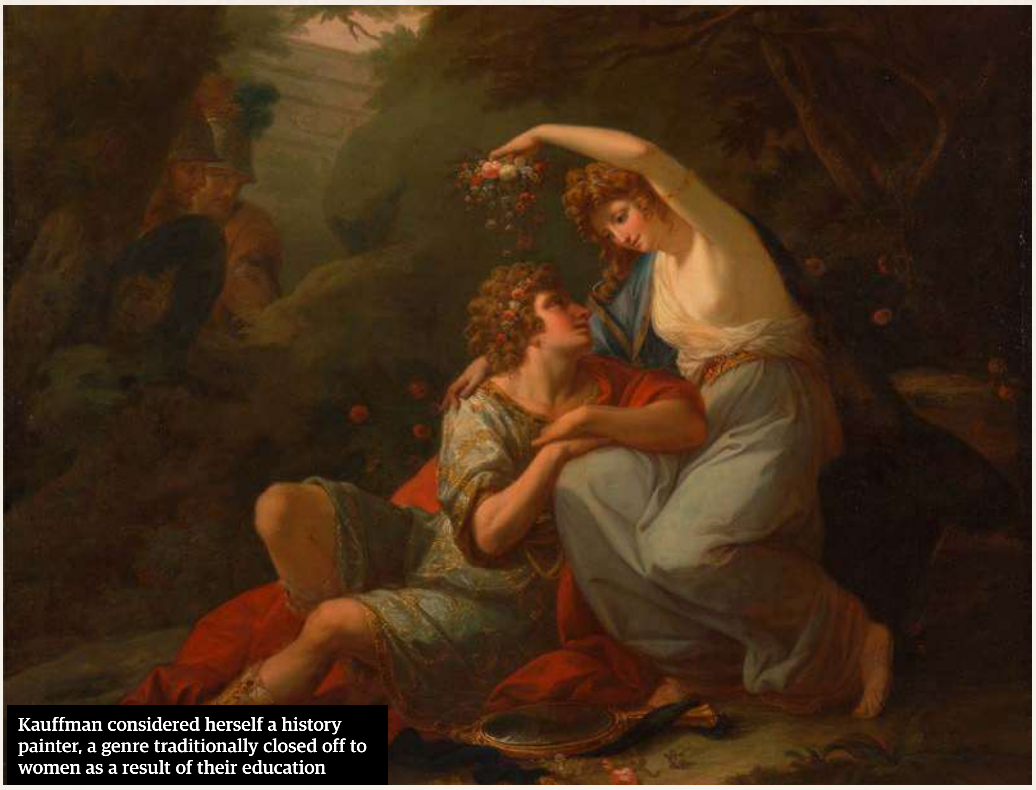
Sworn rival to the celebrated Reynolds, Gainsborough fought his way to become Britain's favourite portraitist



Inspired by the 17th-century greats, Gainsborough's portrait *The Blue Boy* mimics the likeness of Prince Charles (later King Charles II) in Van Dyck's group portrait *Five Children Of King Charles I*

Gainsborough left home at the age of 13 to study art under engraver Hubert Gravelot in London. Years later he returned home and set up shop in Ipswich. He was passionate about landscapes and longed for life in a village. Life in Ipswich meant Gainsborough could not turn a profit, so he moved his portrait studio to Bath, where his patrons were wealthy visitors. After co-founding the Royal Academy, he moved to London in 1774, receiving many royal commissions.

The rivalry of Gainsborough and Reynolds proved to be easily forgiven – on his deathbed, Gainsborough requested Reynolds' presence, and the latter acted as pallbearer at Gainsborough's funeral following his death in 1788.



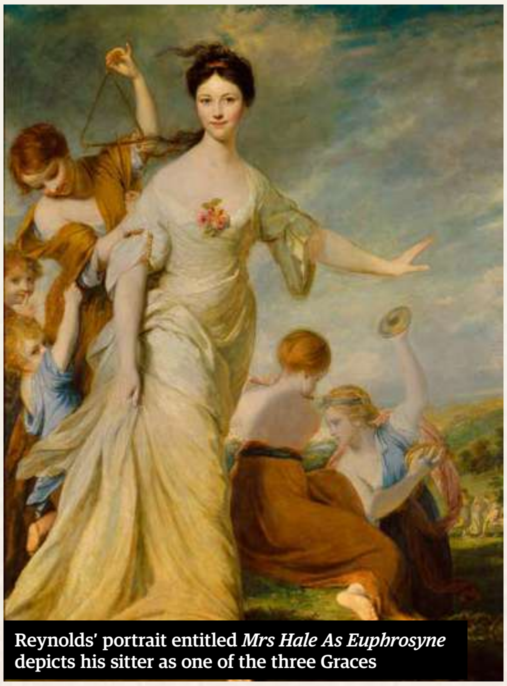
Kauffman considered herself a history painter, a genre traditionally closed off to women as a result of their education

Sir Joshua Reynolds

1723-1792

More than just an artist, Reynolds combined the classical with reality and transformed portraiture into high society's latest obsession

Arguably the most celebrated artist of the Georgian era, Reynolds was not just a commercially successful artist, but also a scholar and a patron himself through the founding of the Royal Academy.



Reynolds' portrait entitled *Mrs Hale As Euphrosyne* depicts his sitter as one of the three Graces

Talented as a child, Reynolds' mother was his greatest champion, paying for her son to study under Thomas Hudson. When Reynolds went to Italy in 1749, his mother once again provided money to help with his cost of living. Here, Reynolds studied the greats of art, developing an understanding of the relationship between art and the allegorical. This relationship went on to influence Reynolds' take on portraiture, where he often depicted his sitters as classical figures from the pages of history.

Upon returning to Britain, Reynolds set up a studio in London, where he became hugely successful not only for his exceptional artwork that seemed to transcend the visual, but also for his charming friendliness, which put him at ease with both aristocracy and the average man. Having joined several societies dedicated to artists, Reynolds was unimpressed with their offerings. Joining forces with several other notable artists of the age, they founded the Royal Academy in 1768, with Reynolds as the first ever president. Over the following years, Reynolds wrote extensively on art, and delivered lectures to the Academy's students on his *Discourses*.

By 1789, Reynolds began to suffer from health complications. Having gone blind in one eye, his health continued to fail, and he died in 1792. He was laid to rest at St Paul's Cathedral in London.

JMW Turner

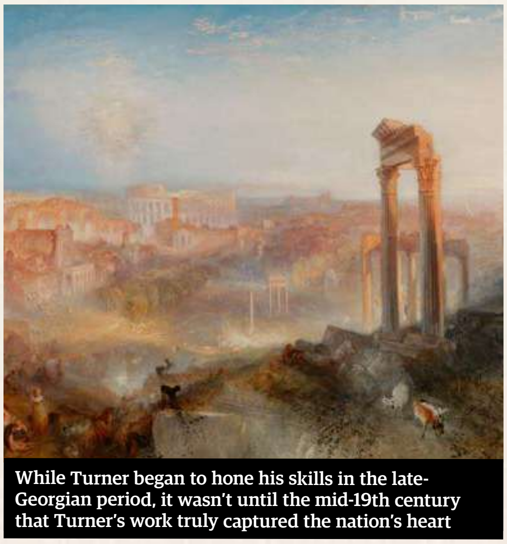
1775-1851

Unconventional and with an unquenchable appetite for unfamiliar landscapes, Turner's work shocked society but inspired generations of artists to come

A man of flitting tempers, Joseph Mallord William Turner had little in common with his contemporaries, and instead lived a life of seclusion and solitude. Born in Covent Garden, London in 1775, at a young age he was sent to live with his uncle in Brentford after his mother was sent to St Luke's Hospital for Lunatics.

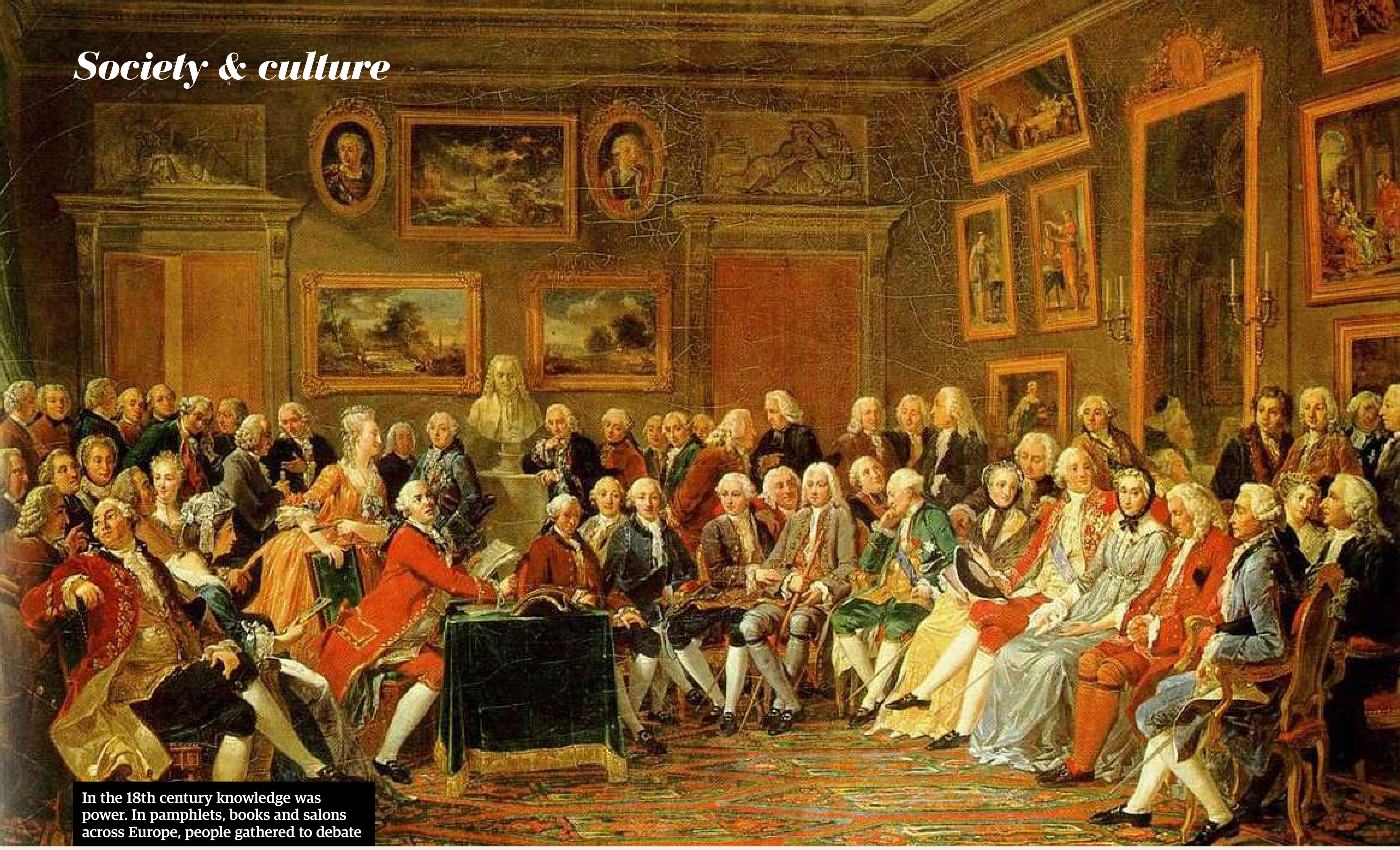
Having shown great skill as a child, his father used to encourage Turner's artistic endeavours and even sold some of his drawings in his barber shop. The young Turner entered the Royal Academy Schools at the age of 14, and just a year later one of his watercolours was exhibited in the 1790 summer exhibition. He continued to contribute watercolours to the Royal Academy's exhibitions, and by 1796 he had exhibited his first oil painting, a medium he would later evolve beyond recognition. This oil painting, entitled *Fishermen At Sea*, proved to be the making of Turner's career and reputation, and by the early 19th century he was regarded as his generation's greatest painter.

Having been accepted as an academician, by 1804 Turner had opened his own gallery in London. However, Turner had an ulterior motive - he wanted to elevate landscape painting to the high status that historical painting held. To Turner, landscapes were the keepers of the secrets that historical painting so openly flouted. Having built his own fortune, Turner experimented with landscapes, evoking light and atmosphere in a way that later inspired the Impressionists of France. Unconventional to his last moment, Turner died under a pseudonym in 1851.



While Turner began to hone his skills in the late-Georgian period, it wasn't until the mid-19th century that Turner's work truly captured the nation's heart

© Getty



In the 18th century knowledge was power. In pamphlets, books and salons across Europe, people gathered to debate

THE MARCH OF KNOWLEDGE

In the Georgian era, knowledge and technology moved at a breathless pace, with the Age of Enlightenment and the Industrial Revolution sweeping all before them

Written by Catherine Curzon

The 18th century was a time of monumental change across all of Europe. From the rapidly shifting philosophical landscape, a new intellectual world emerged as a result, in which the advancement of knowledge and technology were celebrated as the pinnacle of human achievement.

At the centre of this changing landscape was the Enlightenment movement. Though the dates of the Age of Enlightenment aren't set in stone, scholars are in broad agreement that the Enlightenment dawned with the death of the absolutist Louis XIV in 1715 and continued until the outbreak of the French Revolution plunged the continent into years of conflict and upheaval.

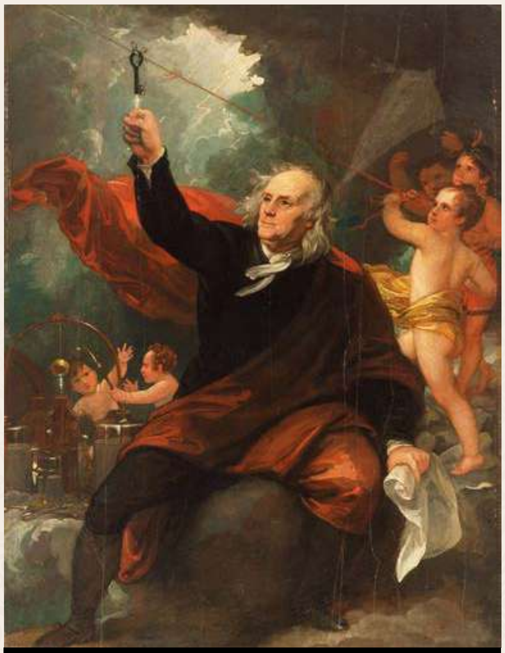
At the centre of the Enlightenment was the belief that individual liberty and reason were superior to the stranglehold of absolutist rule and religious dogma. Enlightenment thinkers instead shifted the emphasis onto rationality and science. They stressed the value of education and the importance of continually striving to improve one's knowledge and that of society.

The quest for knowledge formed the cornerstone of Enlightenment thinking and no single enterprise better demonstrates this than Denis Diderot's *Encyclopédie*, or an *Analytical Dictionary of the Sciences, Arts and Trades*. This monumental work took more than 20 years to complete and stretched to 28 volumes. In its pages, Diderot set about attempting to curate the most comprehensive encyclopaedia ever

> "Scientific academies provided scholars with the equipment, space and funding needed to carry out their research"

created. He did so with a strictly analytical mind, striving to prove the Enlightenment belief that scientifically categorising facts with a focus on logic above emotion was a pure expression of intellectual virtue.

The acquisition of knowledge was central to Enlightenment thinking but Diderot's works and others like it were intended not only to categorise knowledge, but to share it as widely as possible. Although books were one way to do this, not everyone could afford a 28 volume collected encyclopaedia. To address this issue, there was an explosion in the publishing and distribution of pamphlets across Europe and this shorter form was the ideal way to share opinion, news and knowledge. Pamphlets were often political in nature and became important propaganda weapons in charged climates such as the North American colonies and Revolutionary France, where they sold in vast quantities.



Experiments such as those Benjamin Franklin conducted with his kite enthralled the ambitious Georgians, who were hungry for knowledge

In the 18th century, social gatherings became central to debate and education. Intellectuals gathered at flourishing literary salons, one of the most notable of which was the Blue Stockings Society. Here intellectual women and invited guests gathered to host lively debates. In cities, coffeehouses became the public extension to salons and were the natural home of Enlightenment philosophers, who met to discuss their projects and theories and to share knowledge. Coffeehouses also provided a venue in which to read a variety of newspapers and pamphlets, covering the whole political spectrum.

With the emphasis on intellectualism, centres of learning became more important than ever. Scientific academies provided scholars with the equipment, space and funding needed to carry out their research and work, pushing the field of scientific discovery forward. In kingdoms across Europe, monarchs and governments rushed to open their own academies, determined to make their land the centre of learning.

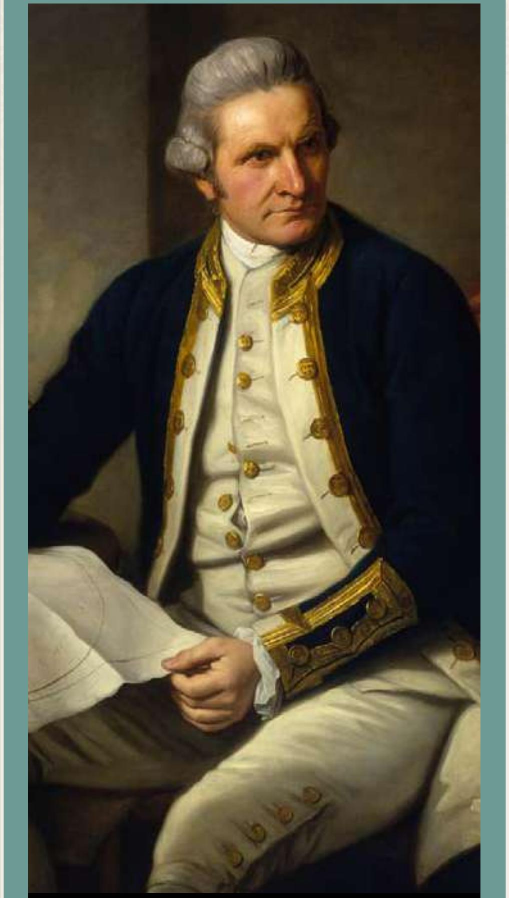
Yet in a changing world, knowledge needs action to flourish and that action came with the Industrial Revolution. Now all of the scientific research and shared learning could be put into practice in a new world of industrial advancements, where the rewards promised to be high. This was perhaps the most significant change in the British economy during the 18th century and completely revolutionised not only the United Kingdom, but the world.

In Georgian Britain, ambition was something to be celebrated, as was honest hard work and the working man became a symbol of all that was right in the world, romanticised for his supposedly simple purity. Yet in this world of rationality and advancement, the small cottage industries that had once fuelled Britain began to be pushed aside by centralised manufacturing, driven by newly developed steam technology that led to advancements in other industrial arenas. The British economy began to gather speed and wealth with a rash of new inventions intended to speed up manufacturing and moneymaking. Among them was the spinning jenny and the spinning mule; engineering innovations that were able to replace a raft of men with a single, heavy machine.

Advancements in engineering saw new developments in the manufacture of metals and with that, the industrial landscape of the United Kingdom changed forever. As canals were dug that created an efficient transport network and more workers moved into the cities, the modern world was dawning and the British Empire was expanding with every passing day.

Of course, all of this took decades and didn't go unchallenged. Yet in the era of the Enlightenment, where knowledge, innovation and learning was lauded, people wanted more. No longer in thrall to the church or the divine right of kings, ambition and advancement had never been more important.

The Royal Society



Captain James Cook sailed to the Pacific to track the transit of Venus on behalf of the Royal Society

Founded in 1660, The Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge was devoted to promoting excellence and innovation in the sciences. The first meeting of the society celebrated a lecture by no less a man than Christopher Wren, setting the standard for the brand new organisation.

Although the Royal Society enjoyed new interest under the presidency of Isaac Newton, by the 18th century its reputation had begun to fade. Membership was dwindling and those who remained could be slow to pay their dues.

Despite this, the Royal Society continued to doggedly toil in the promotion of the sciences. Members regularly gave and attended scientific demonstrations, in addition to debating and publishing papers regarding innovations across Europe. It was responsible for the publication of Newton's seminal *Principia Mathematica* and when Benjamin Franklin's kite proved the electrical properties of lightning, it was the Royal Society that published his findings.

Further afield, the Society backed Captain Cook's voyage to the Pacific and remained the country's foremost seat of scientific excellence. To this day it still exists as an entirely independent body, free of bias and political interference. It continues to provide funding, resources and a spotlight for innovation and discovery across the sciences.

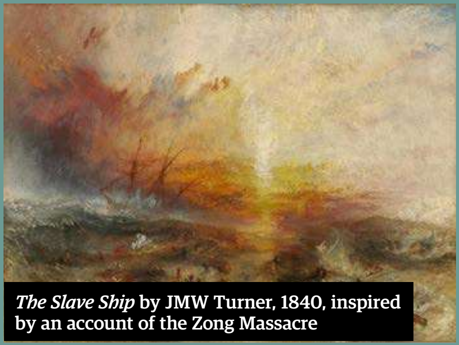
Granville Sharp: civil rights pioneer

Granville Sharp was one of the earliest abolitionists in Britain and fought a successful legal case in the 1760s to release a badly beaten young Barbadian from his abusive master. In 1772 he won another decisive victory on the road to abolition, when he successfully argued in court that the concept of slavery had no basis in English law – therefore no man who set foot in England could be a slave.

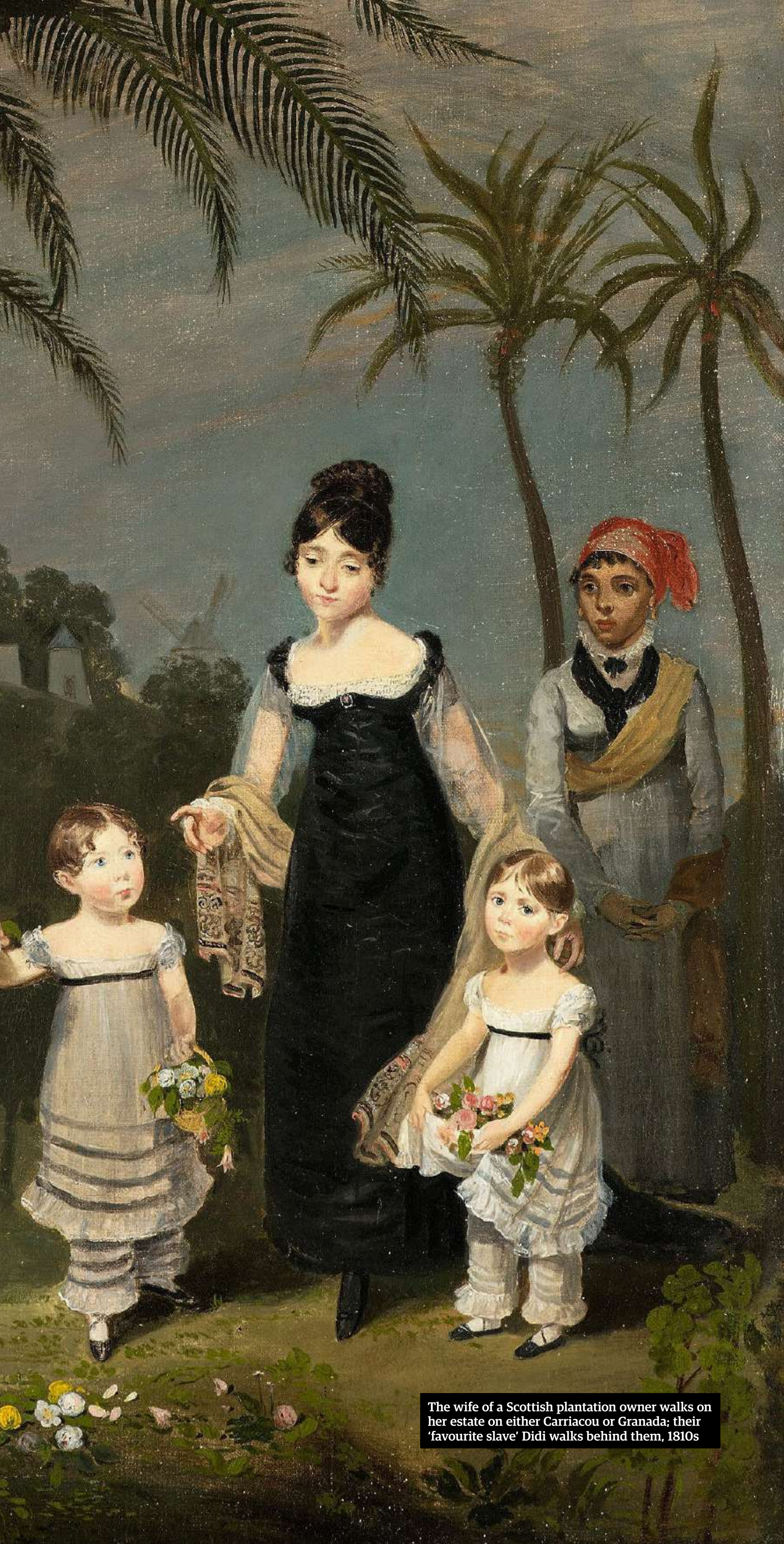
Despite having common law on his side, his legal opponents were financed by wealthy plantation owners in the Caribbean, and a number of influential politicians owned plantations or had shares in the trade.

A 1783 case gave him an opportunity to bring the callousness of the slave trade to public attention. It was a simple insurance hearing – a percentage of slave ship Zong's cargo had been jettisoned overboard and, as such, the ship's owners were entitled to compensation. Zong had wandered off course and water supplies were dwindling, so 132 kidnapped Africans has been thrown overboard by the crew in order to ensure the remainder would survive.

The judge rejected the compensation claims and although no crew were prosecuted, the 'Zong Massacre' horrified many who had otherwise never given the business a second thought.



The Slave Ship by JMW Turner, 1840, inspired by an account of the Zong Massacre



The wife of a Scottish plantation owner walks on her estate on either Carriacou or Granada; their 'favourite slave' Didi walks behind them, 1810s

THE WAR ON SLAVERY

Abolition was born with the Quakers and religious non-conformists, but over five decades, freedom was won by the slaves themselves

Written by James Hoare

Britain's slave trade may have been birthed by the Stuarts, but it was under the Georgians that it grew in scale to match the booming cotton, tobacco and sugar cane industries in Britain's colonies. Over the 1780s – the reign of George III – more than 300,000 kidnapped Africans left their homes in chains on board British ships. Only 276,100 arrived, the rest dying of disease, dehydration, malnutrition or abuse during the torturous crossing.

The first organised resistance came from Quakers. Anti-slavery tracts by the American Quaker Anthony Benezet were distributed across the English-speaking world and in Britain John Wesley took up the cause, galvanising his fledgling Methodist church as a force for abolition.

In 1786, three powerful forces were drawn together. A young Cambridge graduate and Anglican deacon called Thomas Clarkson won a prize for his *An Essay on the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species*, and captured the imagination of Yorkshire MP William Wilberforce. The two agreed to work together, while the Quakers provided their well-oiled machine, printing and distributing Clarkson's text.

Quakers also made up nine of the 13 founding members of the Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade, which found Christians – regardless of denomination – to be its core base, although women and the working class became increasingly sympathetic to the emotional arguments.

While the American Revolution of 1775 had emboldened the abolitionists, the French Revolution of 1789 knocked the wind from their sails. Their arguments – carrying with them the whiff of revolutionary ideals – were treated with suspicion across the 1790s, while the bloody slave uprising on the French colony of St Domingue (Haiti) between 1791 and 1804 appeared to validate those who cautioned against sparing the whip. This situation was made worse by slave revolts in British-held Jamaica, Grenada, St Vincent and St Lucia, and the disastrous attempt by Britain to invade St Domingue.

Peace with France and, more crucially, Napoleon Bonaparte's reintroduction of slavery to the French Empire, gave Wilberforce and Clarkson the ammunition they needed. In May 1806, the Foreign Slave Trade Act was passed banning British subjects from transporting slaves to foreign powers – aimed at the French, it didn't affect British colonies and made it through the usually obstructive Lords. In the general election of September 1806, slavery emerged as a major campaign issue.

Despite the new government holding only a thin majority, the Slave Trade Act 1807 was passed overwhelmingly, prohibiting the trade in the British Empire. Slavery itself endured, but to the abolitionists it appeared as though it might simply fade away of its own accord.

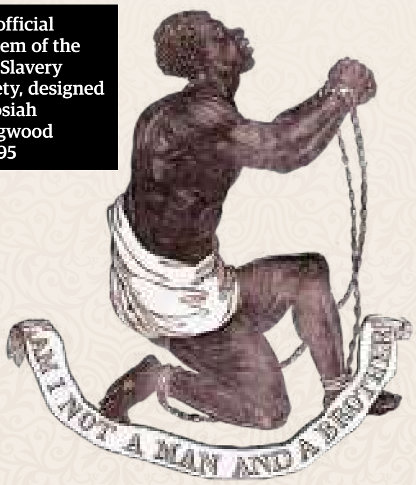
In 1816 a slave revolt in Barbados could well have hit public opinion with all the visceral fury of St Domingue, but the climate had changed completely. Missionary work in the Caribbean had transformed most of the slaves from unknowable 'savages' in the eyes of white Britons to civilised Christians, while first-hand accounts from freed slaves gave them a feel for the suffering that was being endured. In this, Methodist and Baptist churches acted as direct lines of communication and solidarity between two sets of brethren thousands of miles apart.

It was a revolt in Demerara (Guyana) that marked the beginning of the end. Arguably the harshest and most repressive regime in the empire, the missionary John Smith arrived in 1817. When the slaves rose up in 1823, the reaction was brutal. As punishment for the revolt, which killed three white settlers, 250 black slaves were killed. Smith was tried for agitation. He died in jail before his death sentence could be carried out.

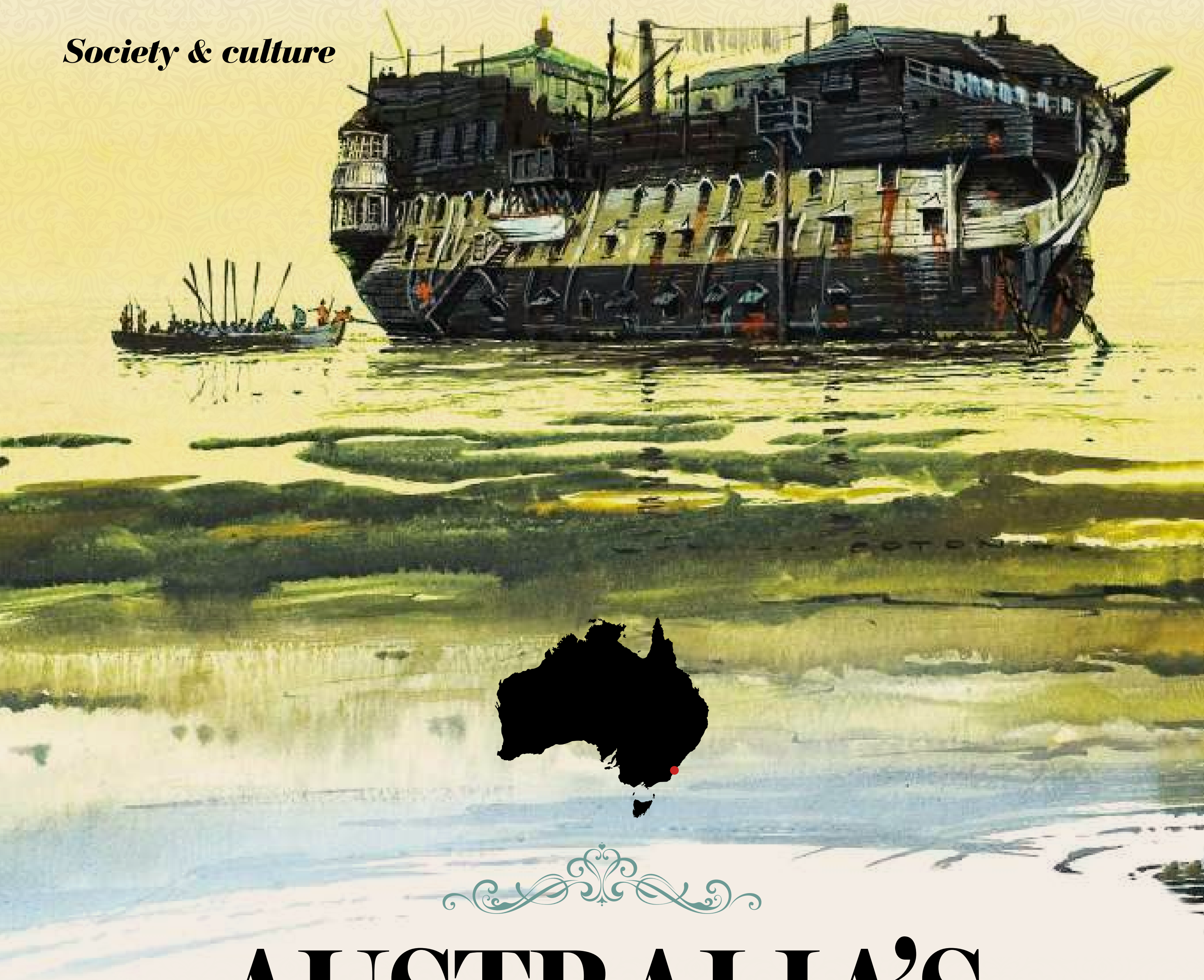
Society was scandalised, and Wilberforce and Clarkson took up the cause of the 'Demerara Martyr'. However, they now had another factor on their side: slavery was no longer just immoral, it was uneconomic and cheaper sugar was available from elsewhere. Now the British public were being asked by powerful vested interests to pay more and in doing so subsidise a cruel and exploitative system, the case for slavery was rapidly collapsing.

In 1831 there was a large-scale revolt on Jamaica led by the Baptist preacher Sam Sharpe. An estimated 60,000 rose up and 14 white people were killed – as with Demerara, the retaliation was disproportionate. 540 slaves were killed and the powerful image of Sharpe echoed the righteousness of the Demerara Martyr.

The Slavery Abolition Act 1833 was a slow-moving reform, initially releasing only those under six years old. The rest remained bound to their masters for six years as unpaid 'apprentices'. In addition, slave owners were to be paid vast sums in compensation from a pool of £20 million. For the House of Lords, who remained closely linked to the planters, it was a sign that all they had left was the negotiation of a surrender that wouldn't leave them too out of pocket. The survival of the system was no longer an option.


AM I NOT A MAN AND A BROTHER

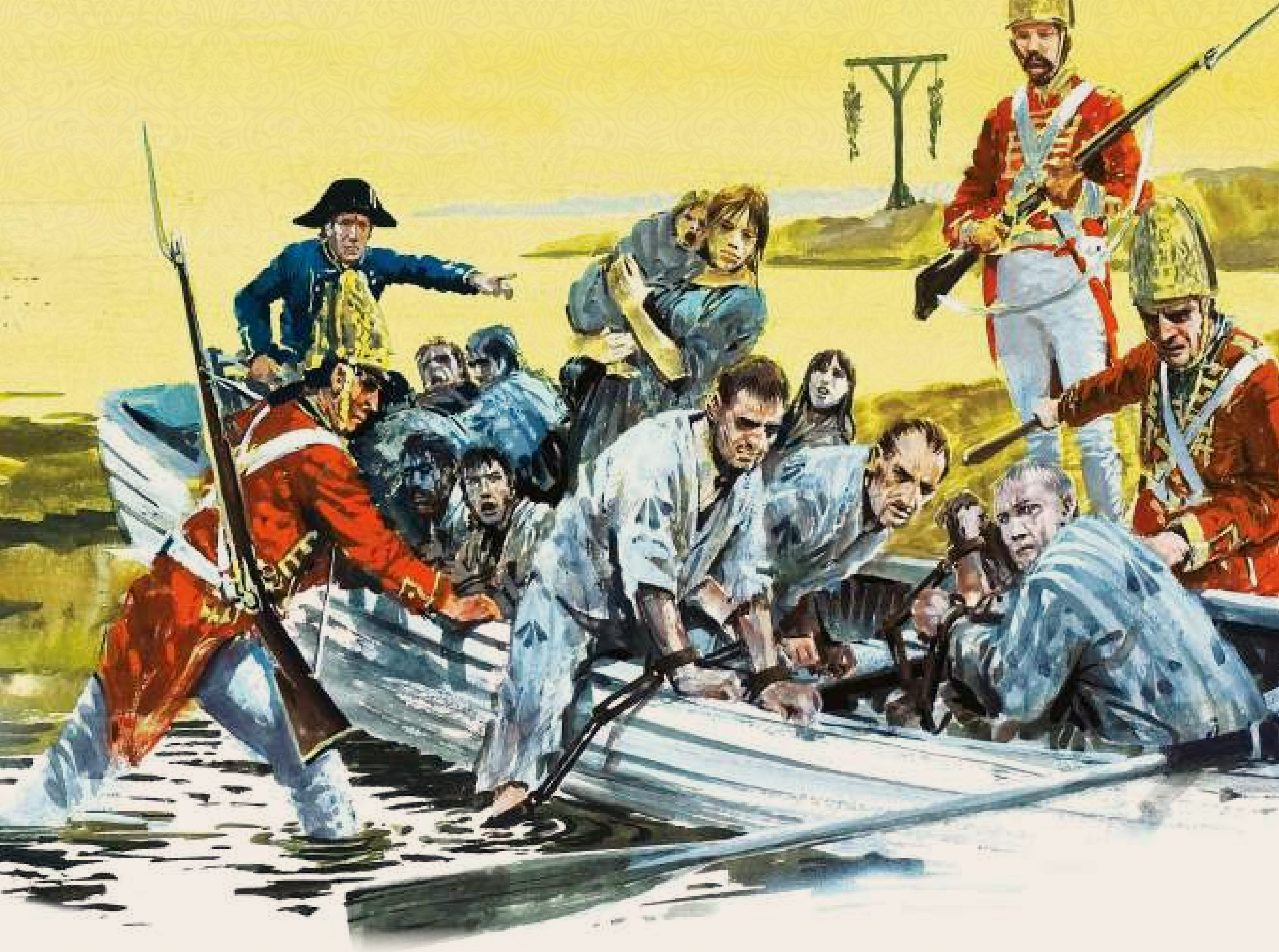
The official emblem of the Anti-Slavery Society, designed by Josiah Wedgwood in 1795



AUSTRALIA'S FIRST PENAL COLONY

Take a closer look at how punitive criminal sentences, a gruelling journey and years of backbreaking labour forged the modern-day land down under

Written by Ben Biggs



With a burgeoning population, a soaring crime rate and a rudimentary police force still over a century away, crime rates started to spiral out of control in 18th-century Britain. Meanwhile, death sentences became an everyday tool in a judge's arsenal, used as a draconian way of reducing the number of criminals on the street as much as a deterrent. Even so, a state-sanctioned blood bath of hangings for the dozens of crimes that a criminal could receive capital punishment for was something the British government wanted to avoid as much as possible. So, in 1718 and with the New World of America firmly in sight, the Transportation Act was put into effect.

Transportation was a legal way of sending convicted criminals abroad to labour in the new colonies. The act allowed for two categories of punishment for two different types of offence: for those that would normally receive 'Benefit of Clergy', the judge could hand out seven years of overseas labour instead of a branding or a whipping. Capital crimes could be repealed at the discretion of the judge and, if he was in a merciful mood, a death sentence could be reduced to a minimum 14-year transportation sentence. It solved the pressing issues of cheap labour in the New World, removed criminals from the streets and emptied jails; for the British government it seemed like the perfect solution. Thus Britain forged its new colonies on the blood and sweat of convicts. This was such a popular form of punishment that 50,000 people were transported to America from 1718 to 1786, and when the American Revolution broke out, making transportation to New England impossible, Britain didn't consider changing its policy but simply looked to a vast wilderness brimming with opportunity on the far side of the world: Australia.

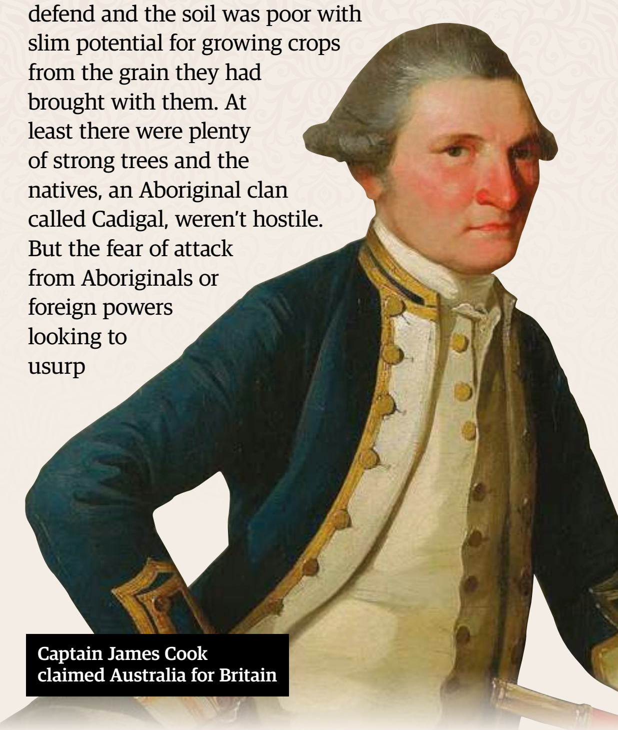
The 'First Fleet', as it's now known, set sail for Australia on 13 May 1787 and consisted of 11 ships: two armed Royal Navy vessels, three supply ships and six criminal transports housing 736 convicts in total. The fleet's admiral was Arthur Phillip, a working-class military man who had ascended through the merchant navy from apprentice at 13, before giving up his civilian rank to join the Royal Navy as a seaman two years later. He was a self-taught navigator and excelled in other maritime disciplines, which gave him a distinct edge over his peers and allowed him to take charge of his own fleet as admiral aged 50. He was also a disciplined, far-sighted and pragmatic leader who believed slavery would only hinder the progress of the new colonies, yet wasn't afraid to use the hangman's noose to make an example of those convicts who broke the rules repeatedly.

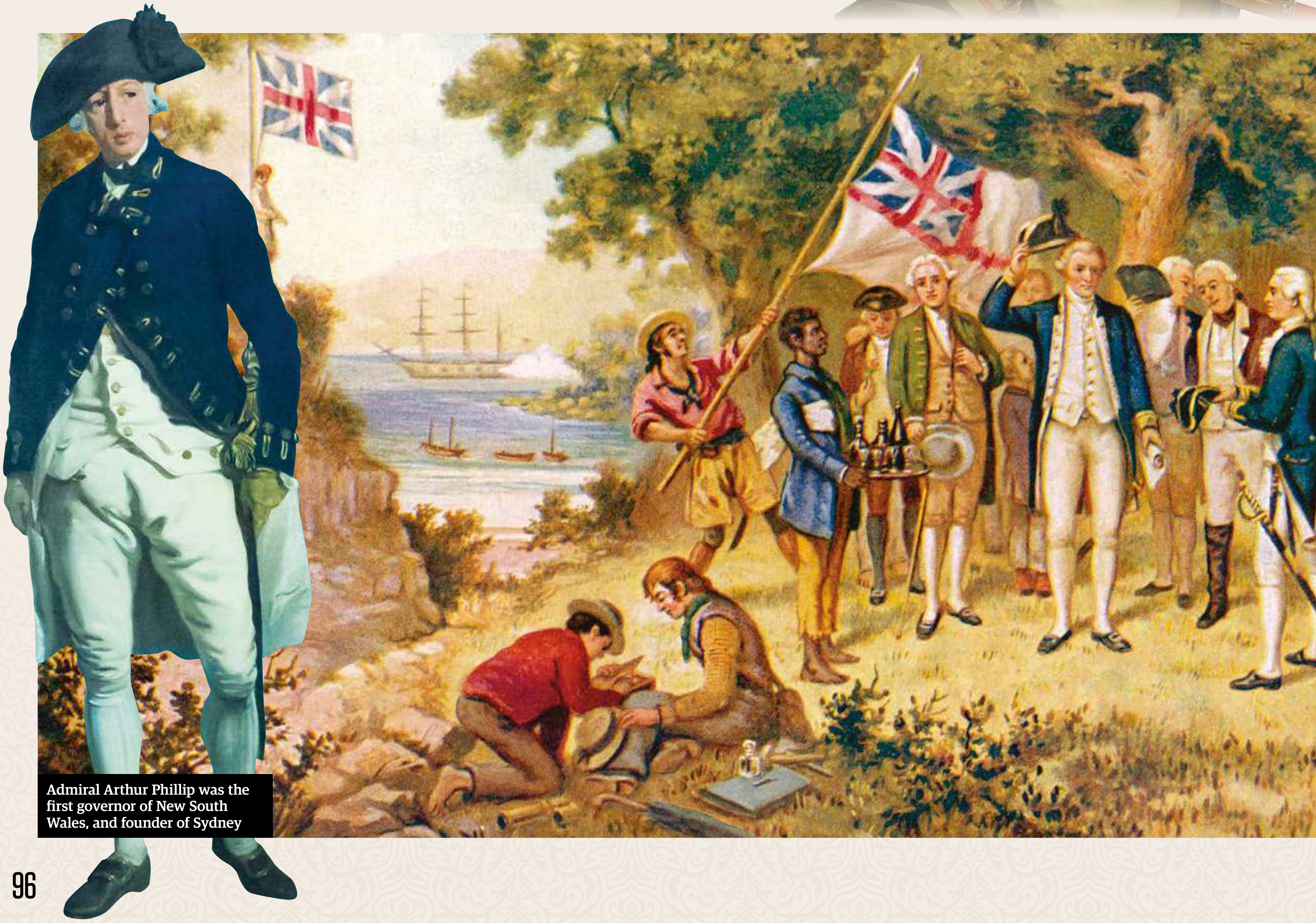
Only a few of those aboard had been given transportation sentences for violent crimes that would otherwise have necessitated a death penalty. Among those guilty of lesser crimes were 70-year-old Elizabeth Beckford, given seven years for stealing a wheel of cheese, 11-year-old James Grace, transported for stealing ribbon, and nine-year-old John Hudson, a chimney sweep also given a disproportionately harsh sentence for common larceny. Admiral Phillip had hoped for tradesmen to set up the new colony but not only was he dismayed by the largely unskilled rabble he was presented with, he was appalled at the treatment the courts had meted out to the prisoners while their fate was decided.

Although the cramped conditions that awaited them below deck could hardly be considered comfortable, Philip had hoped that each convict was at least being given the best chance of surviving the journey that their 'pardon' afforded them: the sorry state that they were marched from the jail in suggested otherwise. Regardless of crime, age, ethnicity or gender, nearly all were malnourished, lice-infested and wearing barely enough in the way of moth-eaten rags to hide their modesty. It enraged Philip that not only was the government denying him the skilled labour he would need to effectively establish a colony, but the rag-tag dregs of Britain's gaols had been half-broken before they had even left the shore. Nevertheless, he was neither going to be delayed nor disheartened, and so Philip saw the First Fleet through what would have been a distinctly unpleasant eight-month journey to a harbour 12 kilometres (7.5 miles) south of modern-day Sydney, stopping off at South America and South Africa along the way.

About 20 per cent of modern-day Australians are thought to be descendents of transported convicts

The last of the fleet landed at its final destination in Botany Bay relatively intact on 20 January 1788. None of the ships had been lost on the journey and only 48 of the would-be colonists had died, a remarkably low statistic for the time. However, the new colony was nowhere near the paradise that explorer Captain James Cook, who charted the region on his 1772-1775 voyage, had painted. Cook arrived during the month of May and had named the natural harbour for the diversity of its vegetation, also noting its abundance of fish. But at the height of the Australian summer when the First Fleet arrived, the land was withered and the stingrays Cook had talked about were nowhere to be seen. The shallow bay also prevented the ships from dropping anchor close to the shoreline, so conditions for a fledgling colony on shore were far from ideal. The water was mostly brackish, the bay's topography would make it difficult to defend and the soil was poor with slim potential for growing crops from the grain they had brought with them. At least there were plenty of strong trees and the natives, an Aboriginal clan called Cadigal, weren't hostile. But the fear of attack from Aboriginals or foreign powers looking to usurp


Captain James Cook claimed Australia for Britain


Admiral Arthur Phillip was the first governor of New South Wales, and founder of Sydney

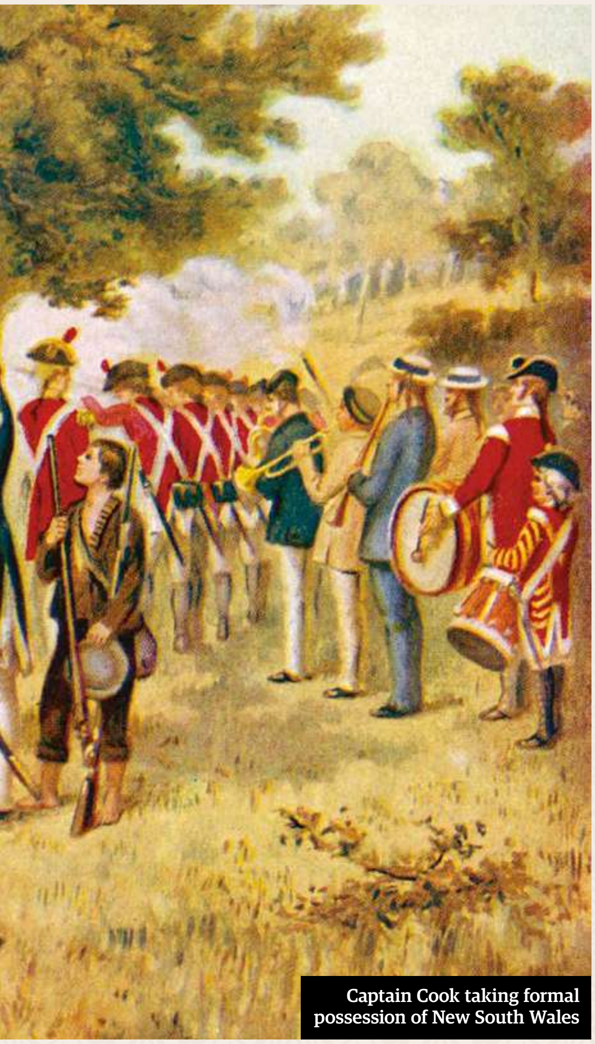
> “Regardless of crime, age, ethnicity or gender, nearly all were malnourished, lice-infested and wearing rags”

his claim to the land led Arthur Phillip to search elsewhere. He took a small party of three boats north the next day to discover a much more suitable, sheltered site for a colony with fertile soil and fresh water. Cook had called it Port Jackson but hadn't entered the harbour, so Phillip took the liberty of renaming it Sydney.

It wasn't just the dregs of the prisons that had been upended into the First Fleet. One particular thorn in Phillip's side was the prickly Major Robert Ross. The Scottish marine had a reputation for having a hair-trigger temper, but it wasn't until Phillip was trying to set up the colony that he discovered just how insubordinate he could be. He refused to allow marines under his command to supervise convicts or to sit in court on convict trials, he was lazy, quarrelled with his officers and commanders alike and generally made Phillip's job of governing the colony more difficult. Phillip had already instructed his lieutenant, David Collins, to take a small party of seven free men and 15 convicts to Norfolk Island, a small island 1,412 kilometres (877 miles) directly east of Australia. They arrived a month after the settlement of Sydney and over the course of a year, more convicts were sent to help with what appeared to be a promising industry.

Perhaps to avoid outright conflict as much as the need for a military presence on the island, Phillip decided to send the surly major over to Norfolk with a retinue of marines in 1790. It was not a successful relocation. Ross continued to argue with Lieutenant Governor Collins and his own men. He declared martial law for four months after the 540-ton HMS Sirius attempting to bring over a company of marines escorting convicts was wrecked on a coral reef. No lives were lost but the ship and all its provisions perished, which only piled the pressure on the islanders. In the space of a few years, Norfolk had turned from a small cottage industry settlement to an intensive labour camp worked by the worst of the Australian mainland's criminals and overseen by military officers who proved difficult to manage. Ross was sent back to Sydney in 1791 and was promptly deported back to Britain after being relieved of his command. Even after Ross left though, Norfolk Island was still used primarily as a prison island for the worst of the worst from the mainland. The treatment of its convicts under the command of Governor Darling became even more brutal.

The system that Arthur Phillip set up aimed to extract the best use of every convict. A few cursory details like their place of birth, religion and physical marks like scars or tattoos were noted to identify them, before they were asked about their previous trade and level of literacy to establish their vocation. Extra labourers, providing they worked well, were always handy but anyone with a trade was valuable. As the penal colonies of Botany Bay and Sydney spread into Australia's rural regions, the trades of a Western civilisation became sought after. Now, not just carpenters, smiths and farmers were in demand, but housemaids, nannies, porters and other servants were required for the free migrants seeking their fortune in a new country. Regardless of their background, every convict was assigned a trade: the educated were freed from menial labour and got off lightly with the job of helping with the island's administration, while the job of some



Captain Cook taking formal possession of New South Wales

Who were the first 'Poivis'?

Notable convicts who endured sentences on the other side of the globe

The Ferryman

Crime: Stealing sugar

Jamaican-born Billy Blue was sentenced to seven years' transportation in 1796 that saw him leave for Botany Bay in 1800. He finished his sentence and became a ferryman across Sydney Harbour, married in 1805 and had six children.

The 'Wild White Man'

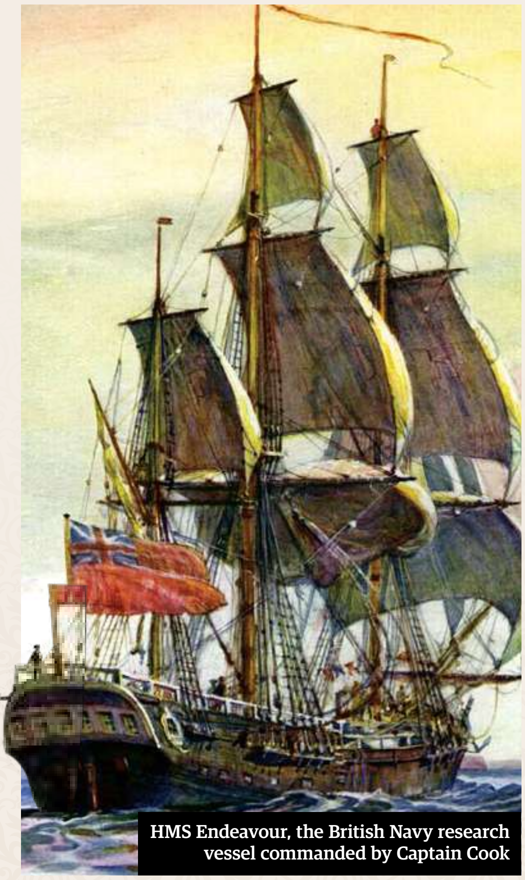
Crime: Receiving stolen goods

Former soldier William Buckley managed to escape incarceration when he arrived in Australia. Buckley was 'adopted' by a friendly tribe of Aboriginals, the Wathaurung, who believed he was the returned spirit of a recently deceased tribesman, and became a respected member of their community.

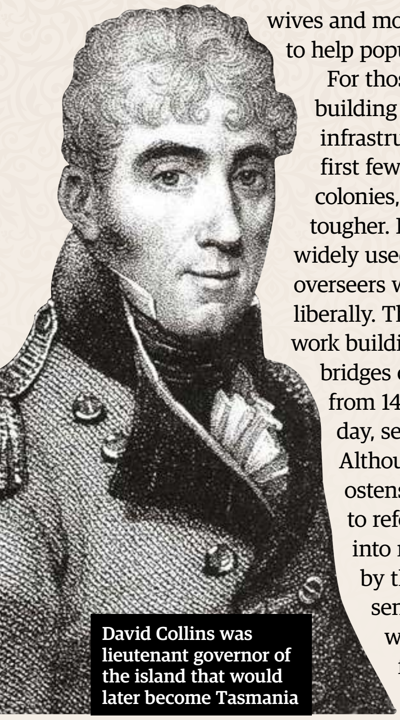
Mother Australia

Crime: Stealing a frock

Mary Ann Wade was the youngest convict sent aboard the second fleet at 11 years old, after her death sentence was commuted to transportation. On arrival she was taken to Norfolk Island where she later had two children. Her descendants today number in the tens of thousands.



HMS Endeavour, the British Navy research vessel commanded by Captain Cook


David Collins was lieutenant governor of the island that would later become Tasmania

wives and mothers was simply to help populate the colonies. For those tasked with building the houses and infrastructure in the first few decades of the colonies, life was a shade tougher. Leg irons were widely used and the convicts' overseers wielded their whips liberally. The back-breaking work building roads and bridges could last anything from 14 to 18 hours a day, seven days a week. Although the aim – ostensibly at least – was to reform these convicts into new colonists by the end of their sentence and there was even a chance for them to earn their freedom for good behaviour, there was no doubt they were being punished for their crimes.

Those transported for more serious crimes could face the death penalty if they were caught escaping, or at the very least face even harder time as colonists on Norfolk Island. Neither did those servants who were assigned to the households of the free migrants have an easy time of it. They were at the mercy of their masters and vulnerable to abuse.

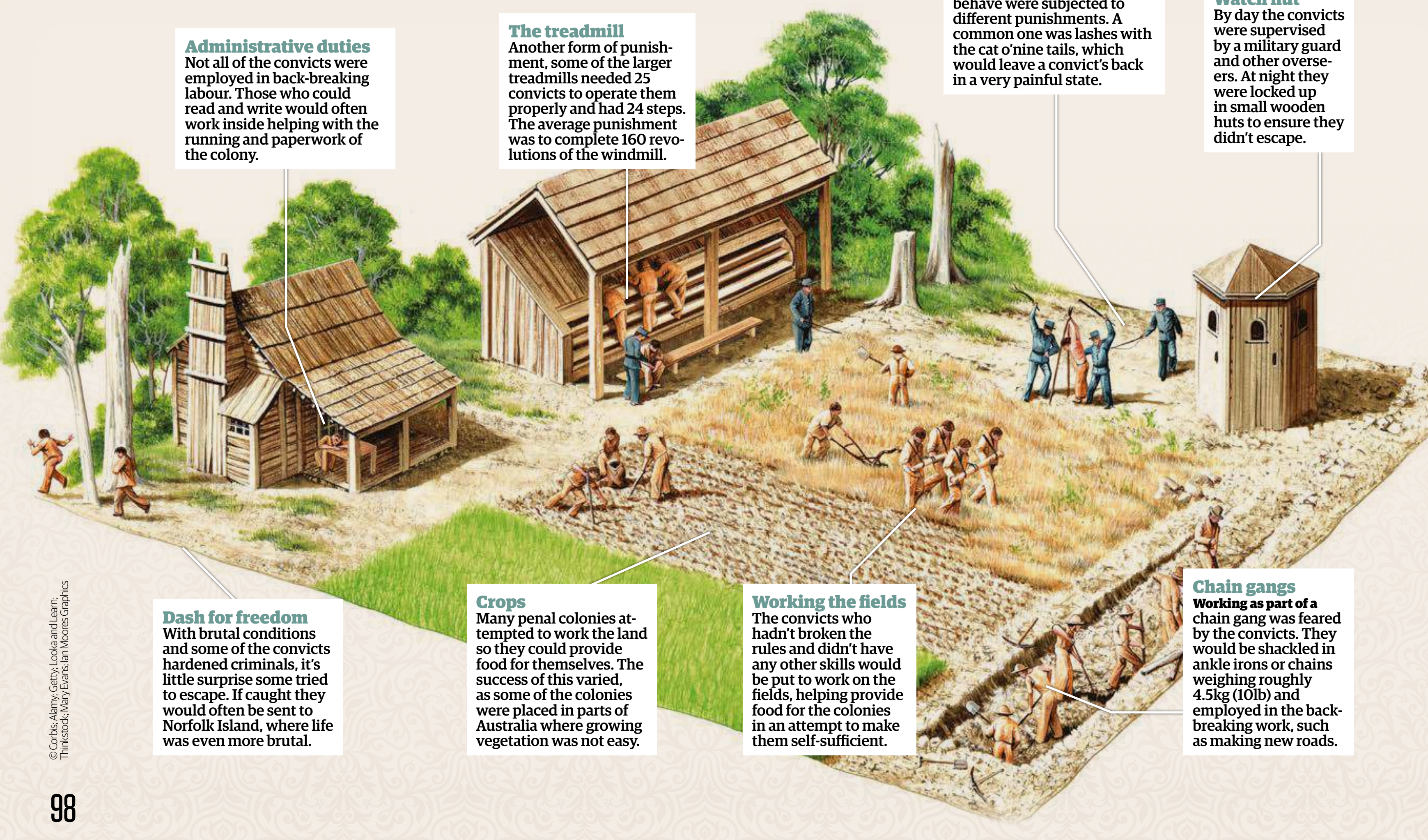
Convicts weren't completely without rights, though. The colonial government paid for their food and clothes, so if a convict's master wasn't feeding or clothing them properly, was giving them disproportionate physical punishment or not allowing them enough rest, the convict could have their complaint heard. If the defendant was found guilty, the convict could be reassigned to someone else and their former master or mistress could lose their right to have convicts work for them at all in the future.

The female transportees of Botany Bay and Port Jackson were treated separately from the men – the 120-strong convict roster on one of the six prison ships of the First Fleet was entirely female, for a start. When they arrived, they were sent to a prison called a 'female factory', where they laundered clothes, sewed and spun while they

> "Back-breaking work building roads and bridges could last anything from 14 to 18 hours a day, seven days a week"

A day in a convict's life

Life for the first POMs was hard and the punishments dished out could be brutal



Administrative duties
Not all of the convicts were employed in back-breaking labour. Those who could read and write would often work inside helping with the running and paperwork of the colony.

The treadmill
Another form of punishment, some of the larger treadmills needed 25 convicts to operate them properly and had 24 steps. The average punishment was to complete 160 revolutions of the windmill.

A good flogging
Those convicts who didn't behave were subjected to different punishments. A common one was lashes with the cat o'nine tails, which would leave a convict's back in a very painful state.

Watch hut
By day the convicts were supervised by a military guard and other overseers. At night they were locked up in small wooden huts to ensure they didn't escape.

Dash for freedom
With brutal conditions and some of the convicts hardened criminals, it's little surprise some tried to escape. If caught they would often be sent to Norfolk Island, where life was even more brutal.

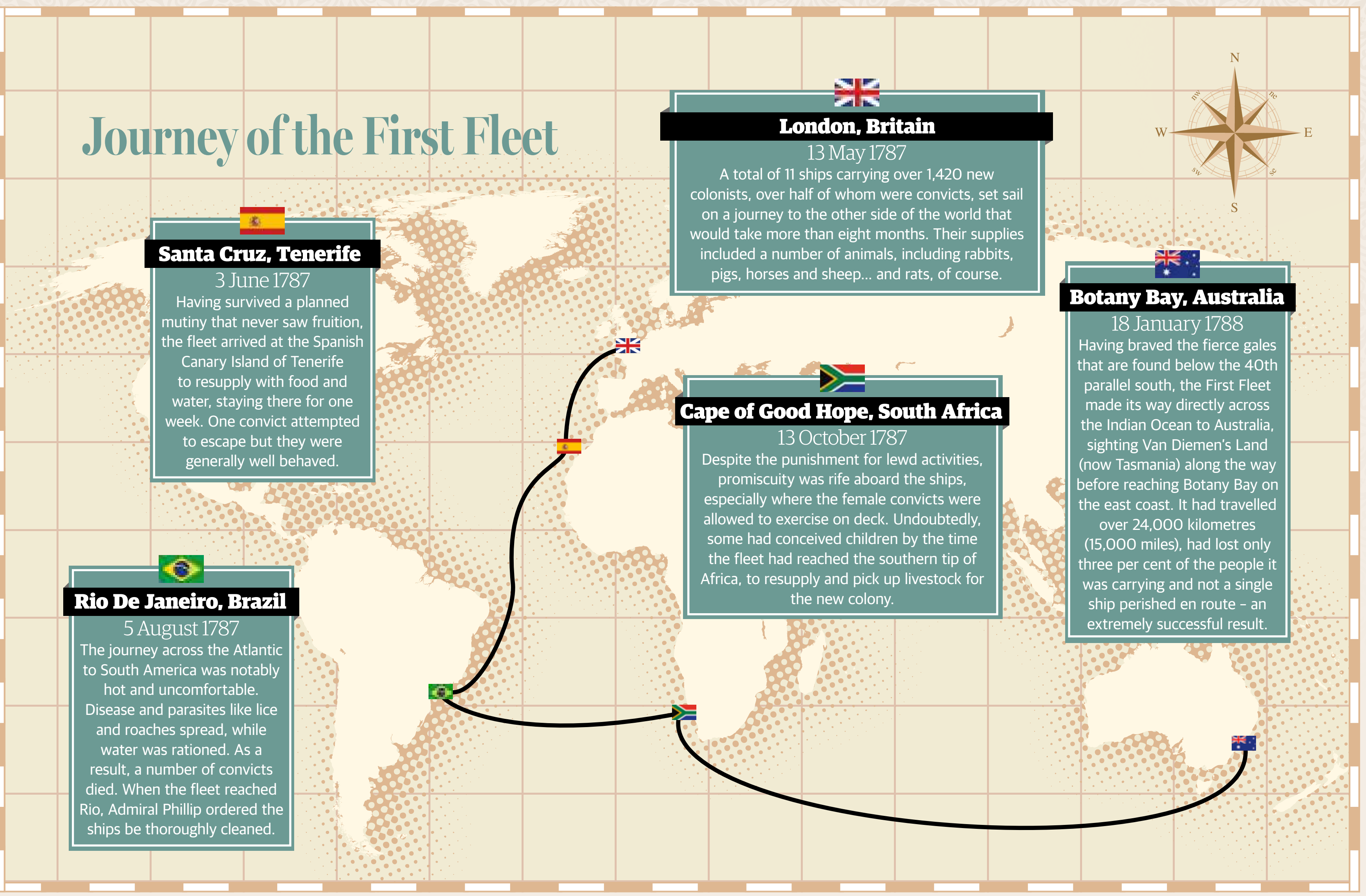
Crops
Many penal colonies attempted to work the land so they could provide food for themselves. The success of this varied, as some of the colonies were placed in parts of Australia where growing vegetation was not easy.

Working the fields
The convicts who hadn't broken the rules and didn't have any other skills would be put to work on the fields, helping provide food for the colonies in an attempt to make them self-sufficient.

Chain gangs
Working as part of a chain gang was feared by the convicts. They would be shackled in ankle irons or chains weighing roughly 4.5kg (10lb) and employed in the back-breaking work, such as making new roads.

© Corbis; Alamy; Getty; Looka and Learn; Thinkstock; Mary Evans; Ian Moores Graphics

Journey of the First Fleet



London, Britain

13 May 1787

A total of 11 ships carrying over 1,420 new colonists, over half of whom were convicts, set sail on a journey to the other side of the world that would take more than eight months. Their supplies included a number of animals, including rabbits, pigs, horses and sheep... and rats, of course.

Santa Cruz, Tenerife

3 June 1787

Having survived a planned mutiny that never saw fruition, the fleet arrived at the Spanish Canary Island of Tenerife to resupply with food and water, staying there for one week. One convict attempted to escape but they were generally well behaved.

Rio De Janeiro, Brazil

5 August 1787

The journey across the Atlantic to South America was notably hot and uncomfortable. Disease and parasites like lice and roaches spread, while water was rationed. As a result, a number of convicts died. When the fleet reached Rio, Admiral Phillip ordered the ships be thoroughly cleaned.

Cape of Good Hope, South Africa

13 October 1787

Despite the punishment for lewd activities, promiscuity was rife aboard the ships, especially where the female convicts were allowed to exercise on deck. Undoubtedly, some had conceived children by the time the fleet had reached the southern tip of Africa, to resupply and pick up livestock for the new colony.

Botany Bay, Australia

18 January 1788

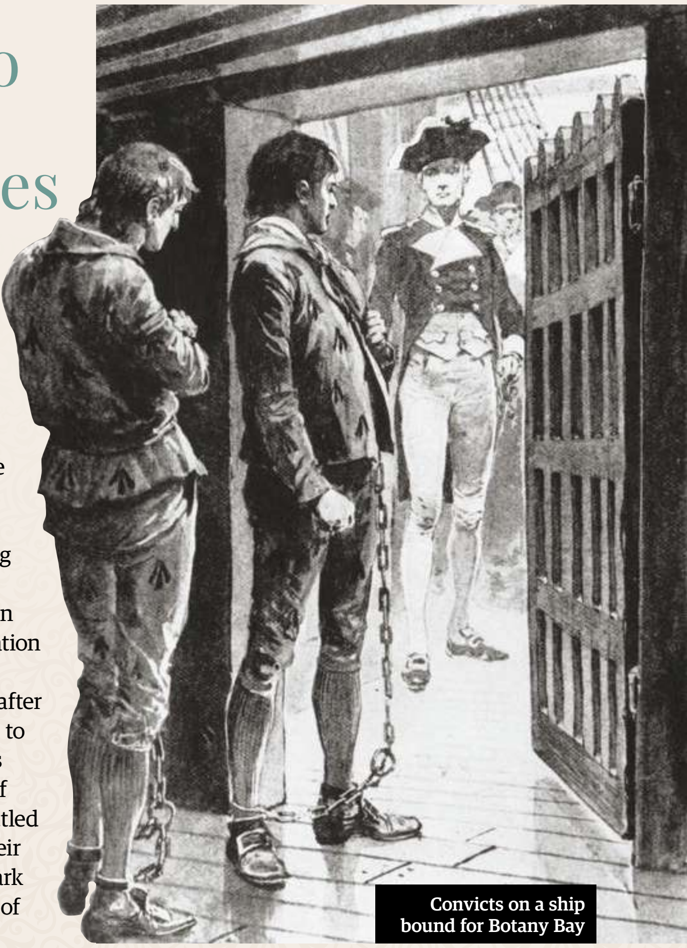
Having braved the fierce gales that are found below the 40th parallel south, the First Fleet made its way directly across the Indian Ocean to Australia, sighting Van Diemen's Land (now Tasmania) along the way before reaching Botany Bay on the east coast. It had travelled over 24,000 kilometres (15,000 miles), had lost only three per cent of the people it was carrying and not a single ship perished en route – an extremely successful result.

> "Convicts had the opportunity to start again with a clean slate, to take advantage of the opportunities Australia offered"

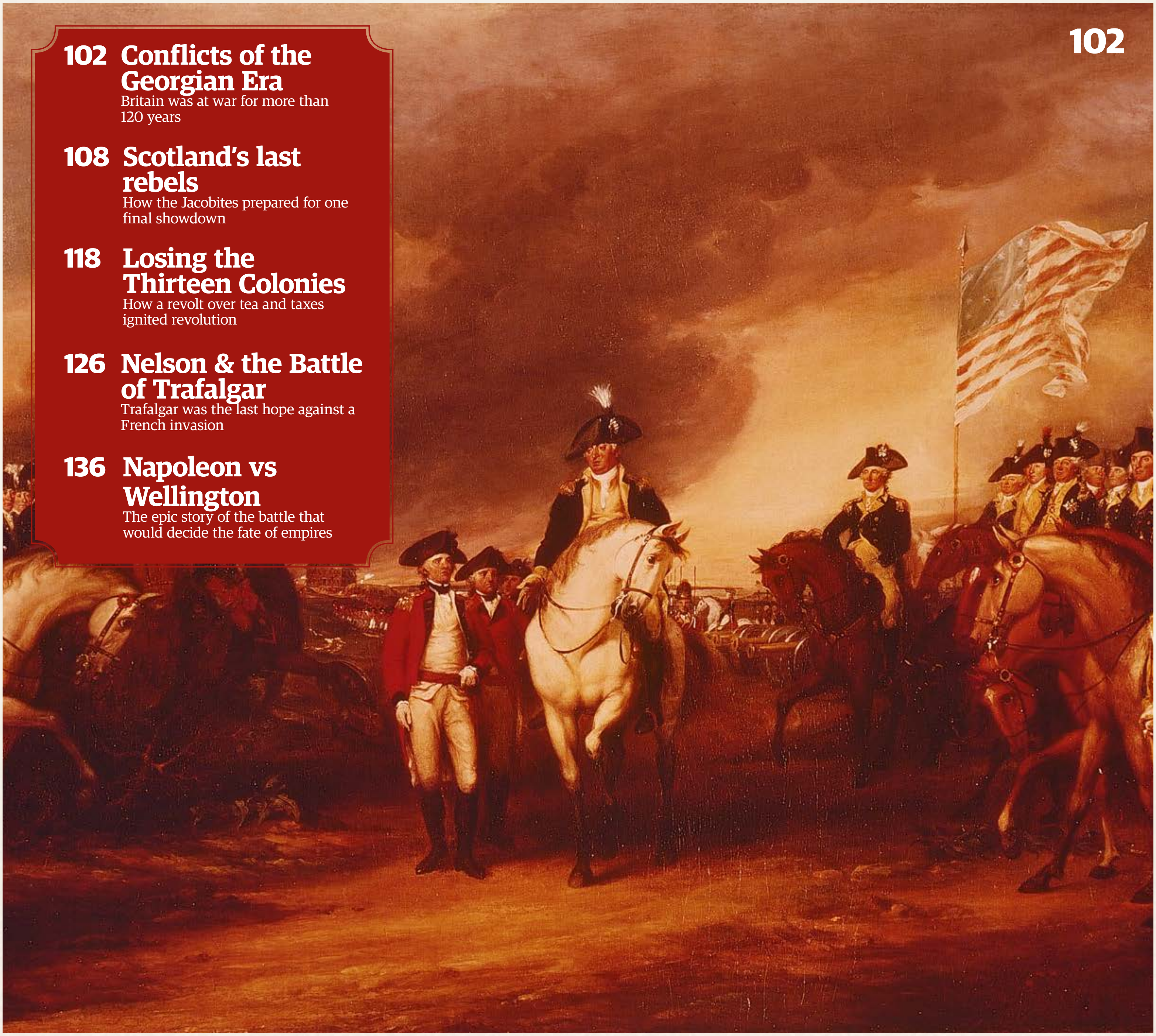
were awaiting assignment. Many of the women transported to Australia's first penal colony brought children with them or had given birth at some point during the eight-month voyage. Their babies stayed with them until they were weaned, at which point they were taken away and put into an orphanage, where they could be claimed back once the mother had earned her freedom.

While life was hard for everyone when the Botany Bay colony was established, it was undoubtedly a better fate than some of the convicts would have met back in Britain. Records show that the quality of a convict's food was much better in Australia than it would have been in Britain. For some, there were ripe opportunities abound in this new land, too. With Botany Bay and Port Jackson growing every year, free men and women began to migrate from Britain to seek their fortune and to take advantage of the cheap labour the penal colonies offered. If a convict behaved, adhered to the rules and served their time, they were free to go. They could buy their passage back to Britain if they wished, but most chose to stay and not just because of the high price of a ticket: the stigma of being an ex-con in Britain simply didn't exist in this new land. Convicts had the opportunity to start again with a clean slate, take advantage of the many opportunities that Australia offered for a free, white European citizen and even climb the social ladder - something unthinkable back on British soil.

Over the following 50 years, public opinion would gradually turn against the Transportation Act as it became thought of as a particularly cruel form of punishment. In 1850, 17 years after slavery was finally abolished, transportation to the developing colonies in New South Wales was also abolished. But by then, hundreds of thousands of Britons and Europeans had settled in the new land, many of them changing their names, learning a trade, and leaving their dark past behind them, setting the future course of this new Australian nation.


Convicts on a ship bound for Botany Bay

WAR & CONFLICT



102 Conflicts of the Georgian Era
Britain was at war for more than 120 years

108 Scotland's last rebels
How the Jacobites prepared for one final showdown

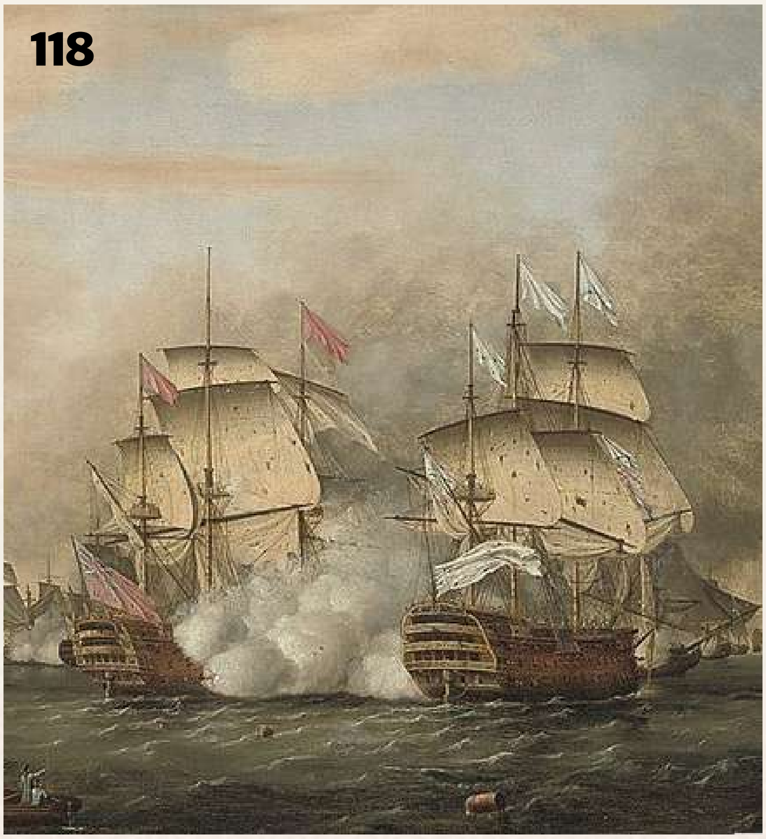
118 Losing the Thirteen Colonies
How a revolt over tea and taxes ignited revolution

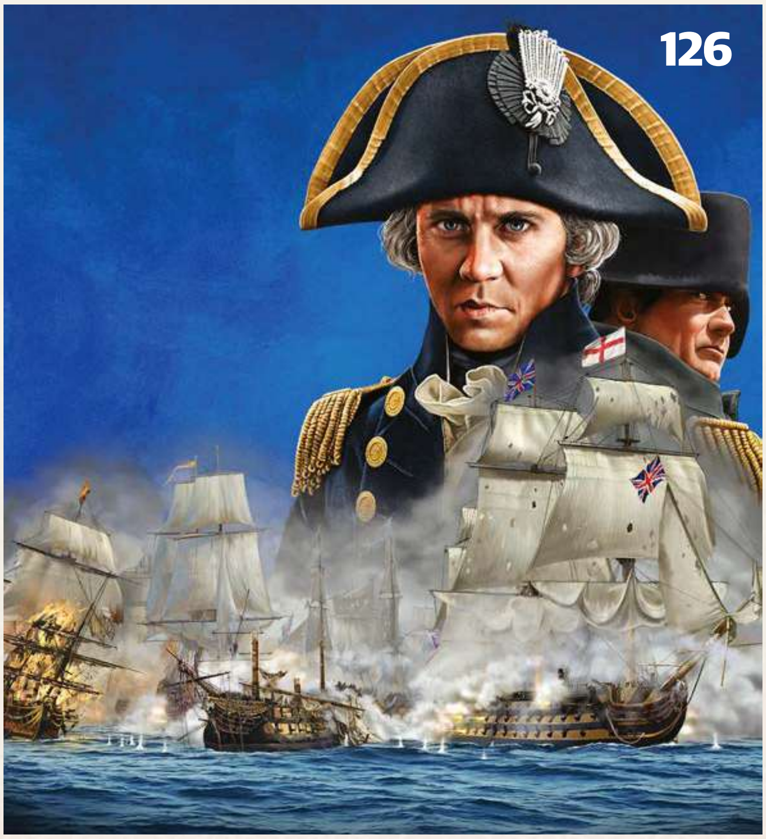
126 Nelson & the Battle of Trafalgar
Trafalgar was the last hope against a French invasion

136 Napoleon vs Wellington
The epic story of the battle that would decide the fate of empires

102

136


118

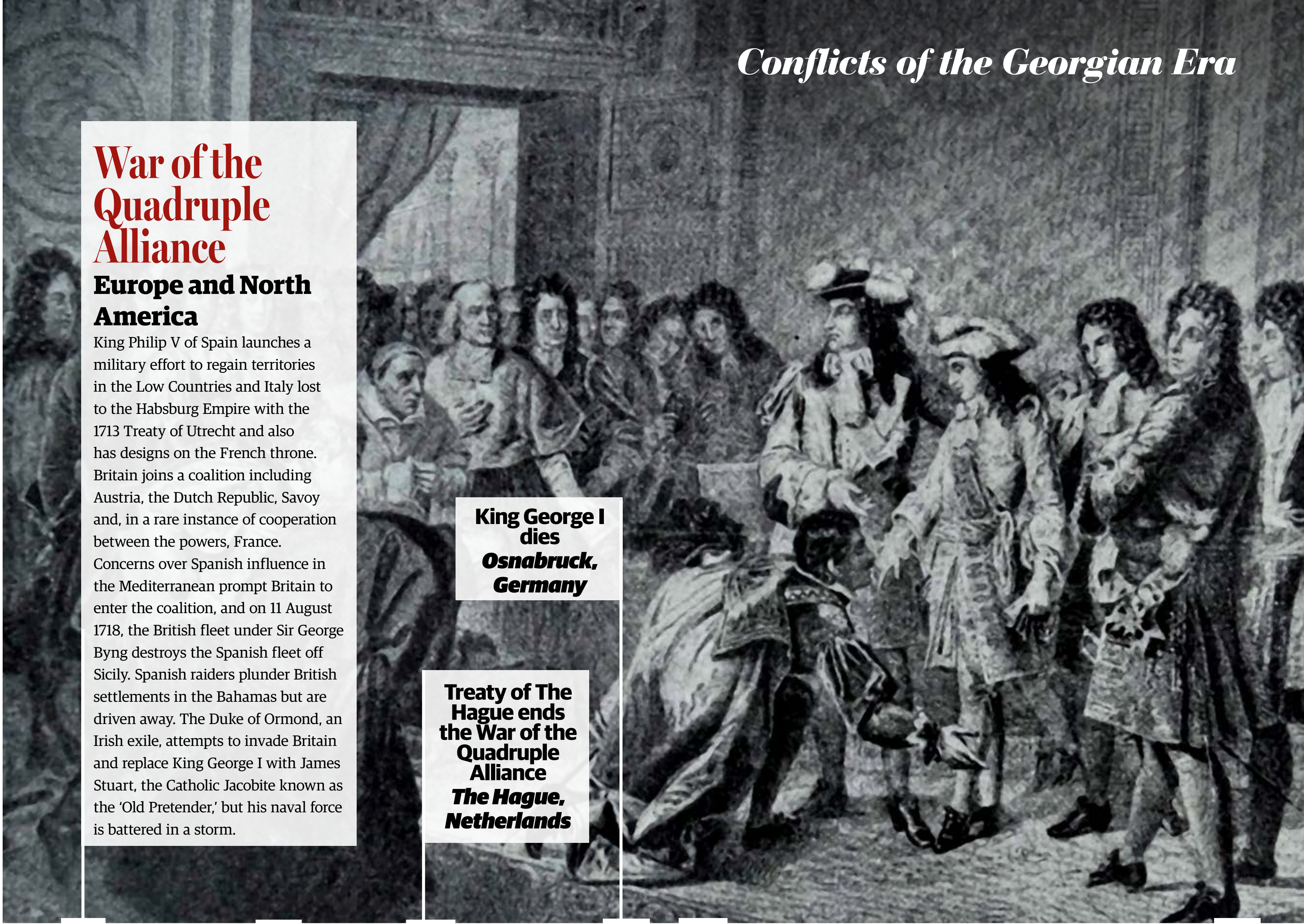

126

CONFLICTS OF THE GEORGIAN ERA

For more than 120 years Great Britain was at war, either in Europe or North America as empire and influence expanded

George of Hanover accedes to the British throne
London

1714



1717

War of the Quadruple Alliance

Europe and North America

King Philip V of Spain launches a military effort to regain territories in the Low Countries and Italy lost to the Habsburg Empire with the 1713 Treaty of Utrecht and also has designs on the French throne. Britain joins a coalition including Austria, the Dutch Republic, Savoy and, in a rare instance of cooperation between the powers, France. Concerns over Spanish influence in the Mediterranean prompt Britain to enter the coalition, and on 11 August 1718, the British fleet under Sir George Byng destroys the Spanish fleet off Sicily. Spanish raiders plunder British settlements in the Bahamas but are driven away. The Duke of Ormond, an Irish exile, attempts to invade Britain and replace King George I with James Stuart, the Catholic Jacobite known as the 'Old Pretender,' but his naval force is battered in a storm.

1719

Jacobite uprising crushed at the Battle of Glen Shiel

Glen Shiel, Scotland

1720

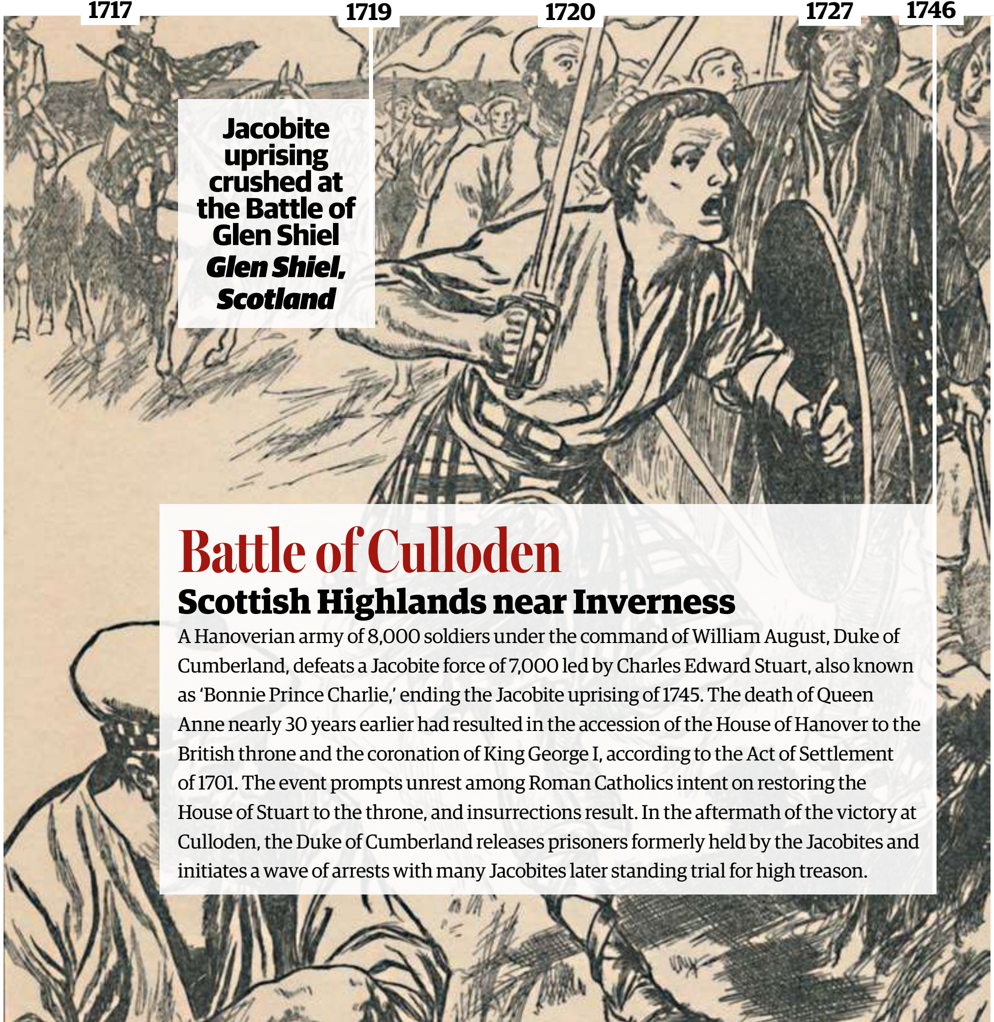
Treaty of The Hague ends the War of the Quadruple Alliance

The Hague, Netherlands

1727

King George I dies

Osnabruck, Germany

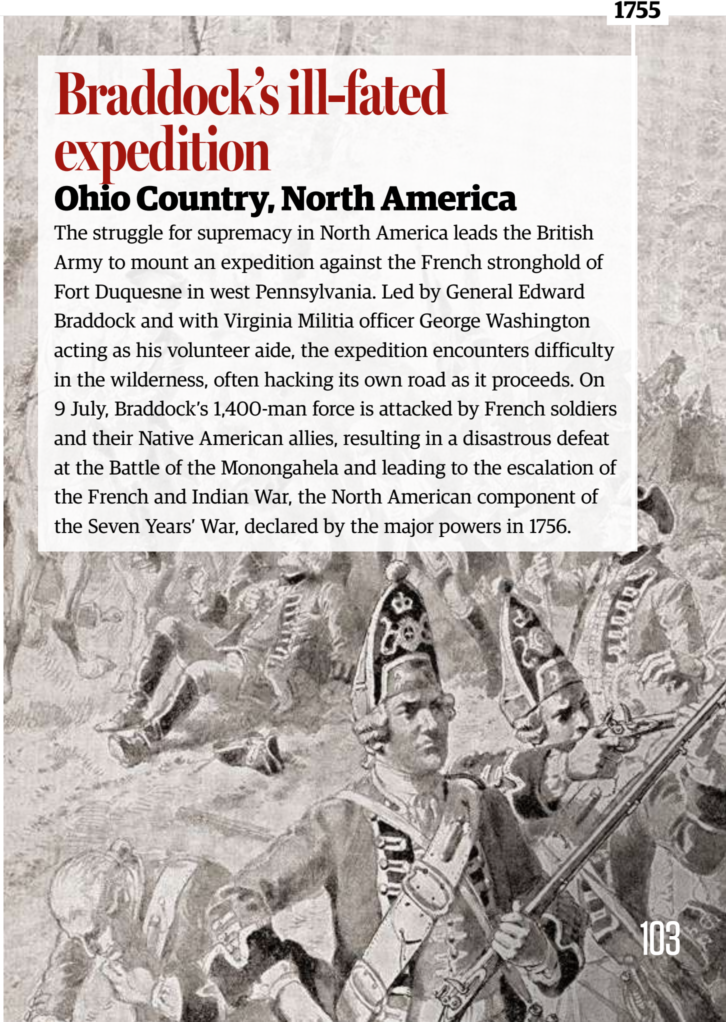


1746

Battle of Culloden

Scottish Highlands near Inverness

A Hanoverian army of 8,000 soldiers under the command of William August, Duke of Cumberland, defeats a Jacobite force of 7,000 led by Charles Edward Stuart, also known as 'Bonnie Prince Charlie,' ending the Jacobite uprising of 1745. The death of Queen Anne nearly 30 years earlier had resulted in the accession of the House of Hanover to the British throne and the coronation of King George I, according to the Act of Settlement of 1701. The event prompts unrest among Roman Catholics intent on restoring the House of Stuart to the throne, and insurrections result. In the aftermath of the victory at Culloden, the Duke of Cumberland releases prisoners formerly held by the Jacobites and initiates a wave of arrests with many Jacobites later standing trial for high treason.

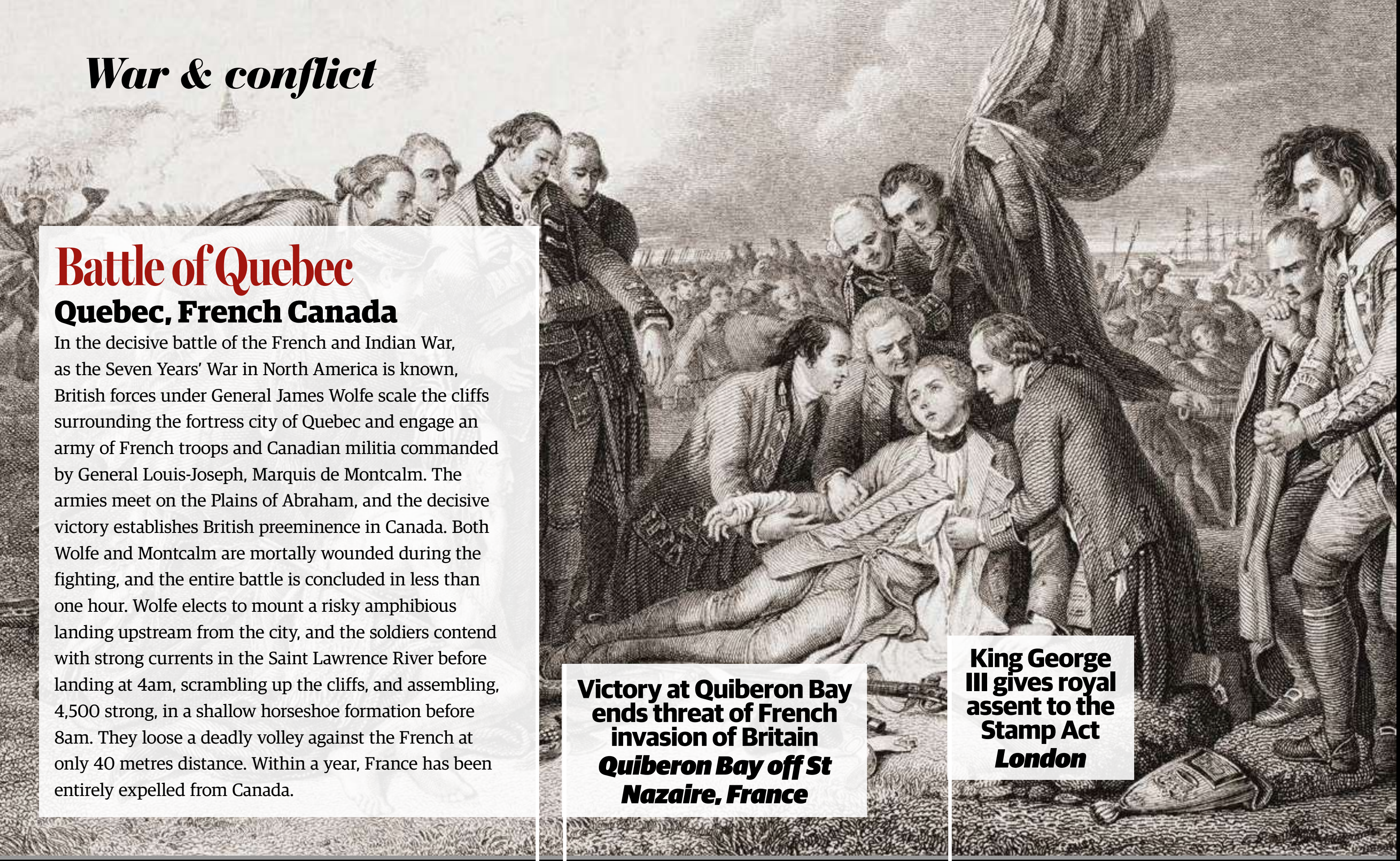


1755

Braddock's ill-fated expedition

Ohio Country, North America

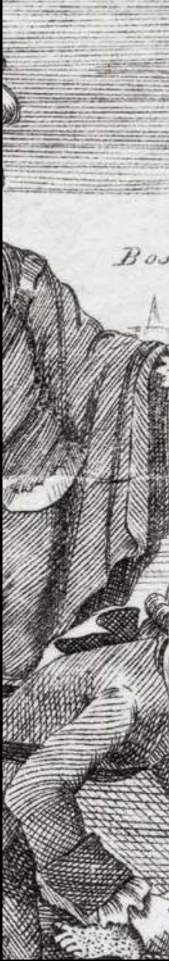
The struggle for supremacy in North America leads the British Army to mount an expedition against the French stronghold of Fort Duquesne in west Pennsylvania. Led by General Edward Braddock and with Virginia Militia officer George Washington acting as his volunteer aide, the expedition encounters difficulty in the wilderness, often hacking its own road as it proceeds. On 9 July, Braddock's 1,400-man force is attacked by French soldiers and their Native American allies, resulting in a disastrous defeat at the Battle of the Monongahela and leading to the escalation of the French and Indian War, the North American component of the Seven Years' War, declared by the major powers in 1756.



Battle of Quebec

Quebec, French Canada

In the decisive battle of the French and Indian War, as the Seven Years' War in North America is known, British forces under General James Wolfe scale the cliffs surrounding the fortress city of Quebec and engage an army of French troops and Canadian militia commanded by General Louis-Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm. The armies meet on the Plains of Abraham, and the decisive victory establishes British preeminence in Canada. Both Wolfe and Montcalm are mortally wounded during the fighting, and the entire battle is concluded in less than one hour. Wolfe elects to mount a risky amphibious landing upstream from the city, and the soldiers contend with strong currents in the Saint Lawrence River before landing at 4am, scrambling up the cliffs, and assembling, 4,500 strong, in a shallow horseshoe formation before 8am. They loose a deadly volley against the French at only 40 metres distance. Within a year, France has been entirely expelled from Canada.



1756

Seven Years' War begins
Worldwide

1759

Victory at Quiberon Bay ends threat of French invasion of Britain
Quiberon Bay off St Nazaire, France

1760

King George II dies
London

1763

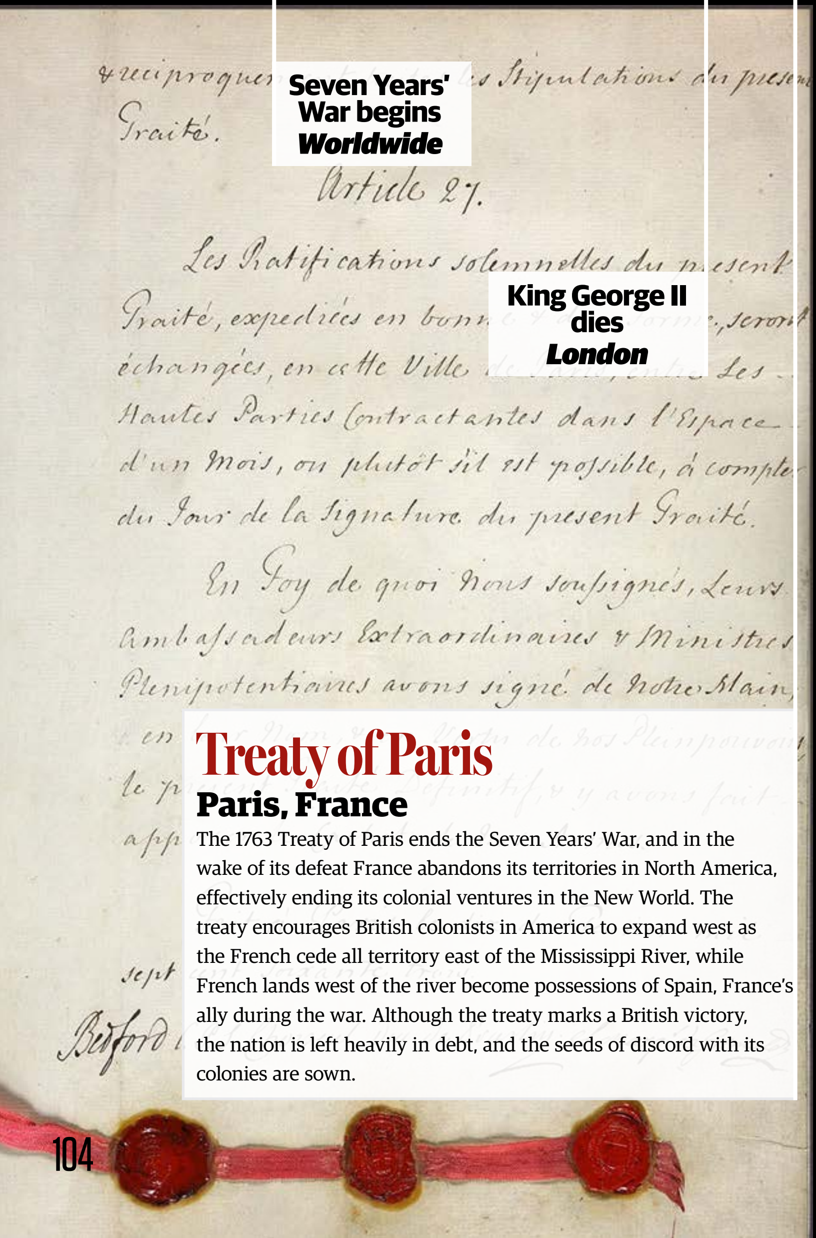
1765

King George III gives royal assent to the Stamp Act
London

1770

1773

Boston Te
Party
Boston,
Massachus



& reciproquem
Stipulations du presen
Traité.

Article 27.

Les Ratifications solemnelles du present
Traité, expediées en bonne forme, seront
échangées, en cette Ville
Hautes Parties Contractantes dans l'Espace
d'un Mois, ou plutôt s'il est possible, à compter
du Jour de la Signature du present Traité.

En Foy de quoi Nous souſsignés, Leurs
Ambaſsadeurs Extraordinaires & Ministres
Plenipotentiaires avons signé de notre Main,

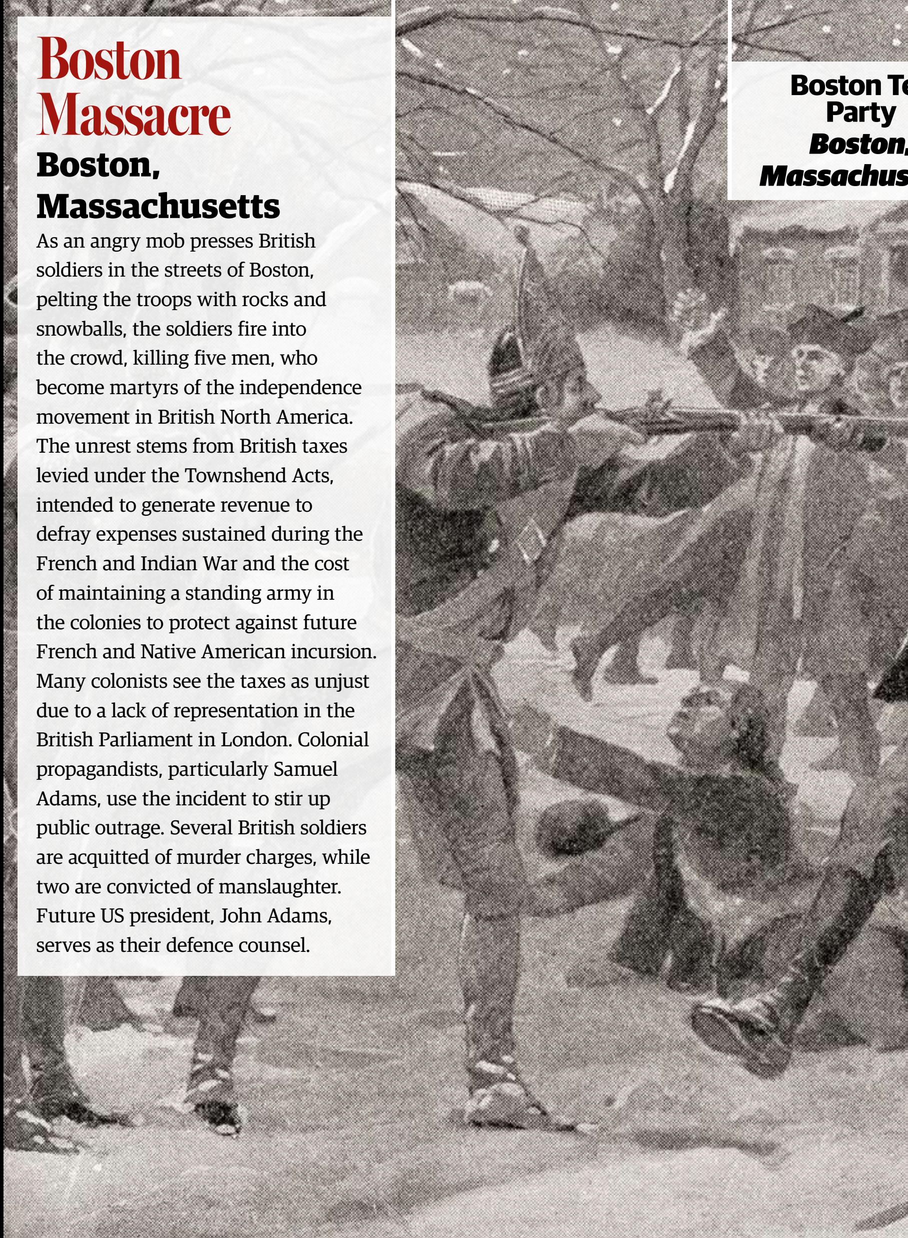
sept

Bedford

Treaty of Paris

Paris, France

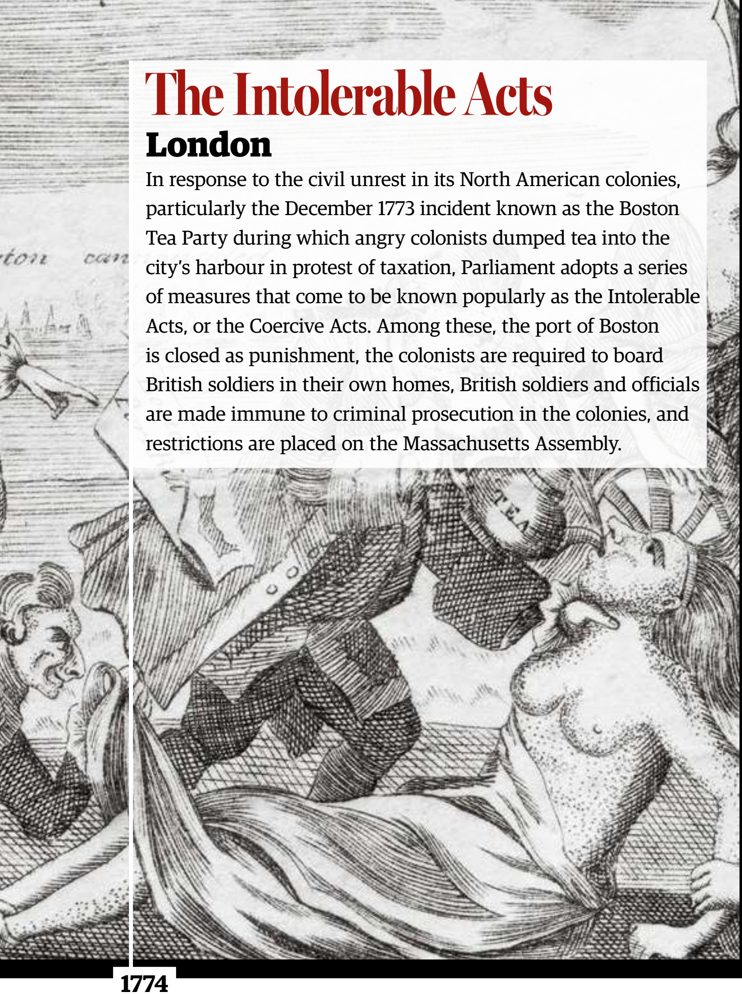
The 1763 Treaty of Paris ends the Seven Years' War, and in the wake of its defeat France abandons its territories in North America, effectively ending its colonial ventures in the New World. The treaty encourages British colonists in America to expand west as the French cede all territory east of the Mississippi River, while French lands west of the river become possessions of Spain, France's ally during the war. Although the treaty marks a British victory, the nation is left heavily in debt, and the seeds of discord with its colonies are sown.



Boston Massacre

Boston, Massachusetts

As an angry mob presses British soldiers in the streets of Boston, pelting the troops with rocks and snowballs, the soldiers fire into the crowd, killing five men, who become martyrs of the independence movement in British North America. The unrest stems from British taxes levied under the Townshend Acts, intended to generate revenue to defray expenses sustained during the French and Indian War and the cost of maintaining a standing army in the colonies to protect against future French and Native American incursion. Many colonists see the taxes as unjust due to a lack of representation in the British Parliament in London. Colonial propagandists, particularly Samuel Adams, use the incident to stir up public outrage. Several British soldiers are acquitted of murder charges, while two are convicted of manslaughter. Future US president, John Adams, serves as their defence counsel.

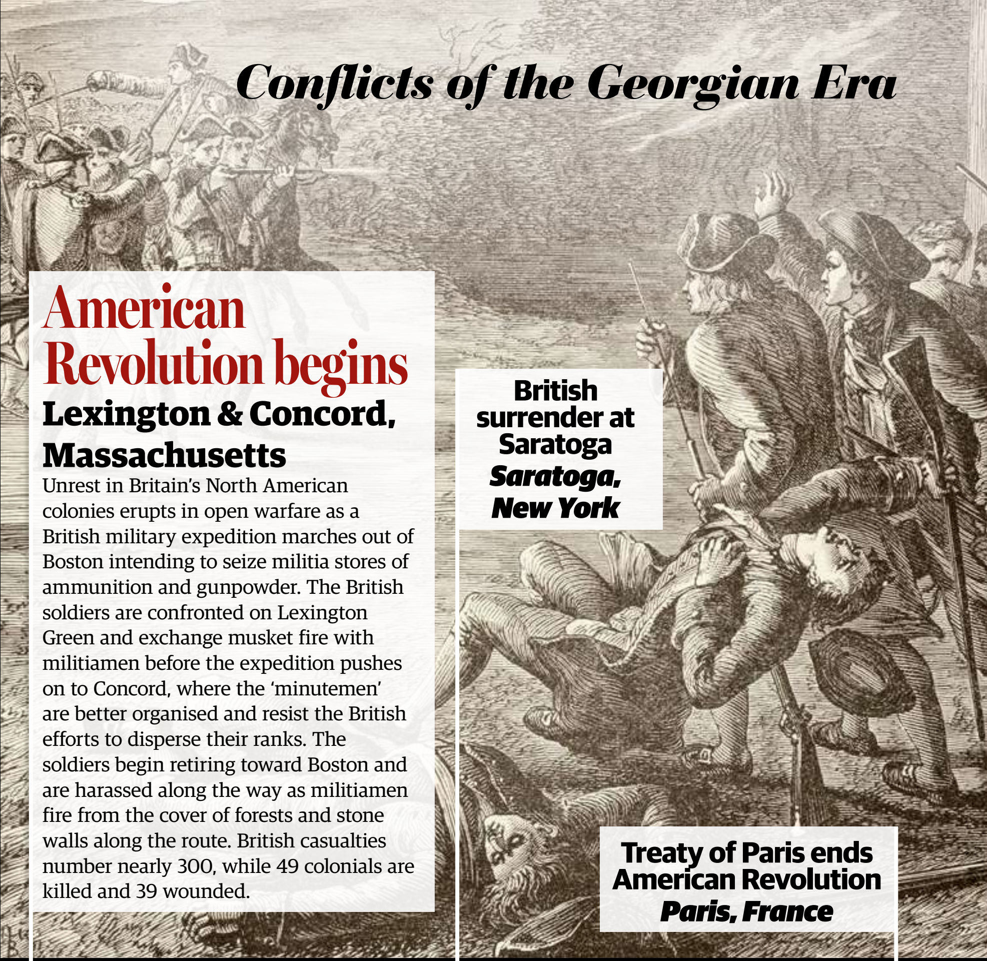


The Intolerable Acts

London

1774

In response to the civil unrest in its North American colonies, particularly the December 1773 incident known as the Boston Tea Party during which angry colonists dumped tea into the city's harbour in protest of taxation, Parliament adopts a series of measures that come to be known popularly as the Intolerable Acts, or the Coercive Acts. Among these, the port of Boston is closed as punishment, the colonists are required to board British soldiers in their own homes, British soldiers and officials are made immune to criminal prosecution in the colonies, and restrictions are placed on the Massachusetts Assembly.



American Revolution begins

Lexington & Concord, Massachusetts

1775

Unrest in Britain's North American colonies erupts in open warfare as a British military expedition marches out of Boston intending to seize militia stores of ammunition and gunpowder. The British soldiers are confronted on Lexington Green and exchange musket fire with militiamen before the expedition pushes on to Concord, where the 'minutemen' are better organised and resist the British efforts to disperse their ranks. The soldiers begin retiring toward Boston and are harassed along the way as militiamen fire from the cover of forests and stone walls along the route. British casualties number nearly 300, while 49 colonials are killed and 39 wounded.

British surrender at Saratoga

Saratoga, New York

1777

Treaty of Paris ends American Revolution

Paris, France

1783

ea

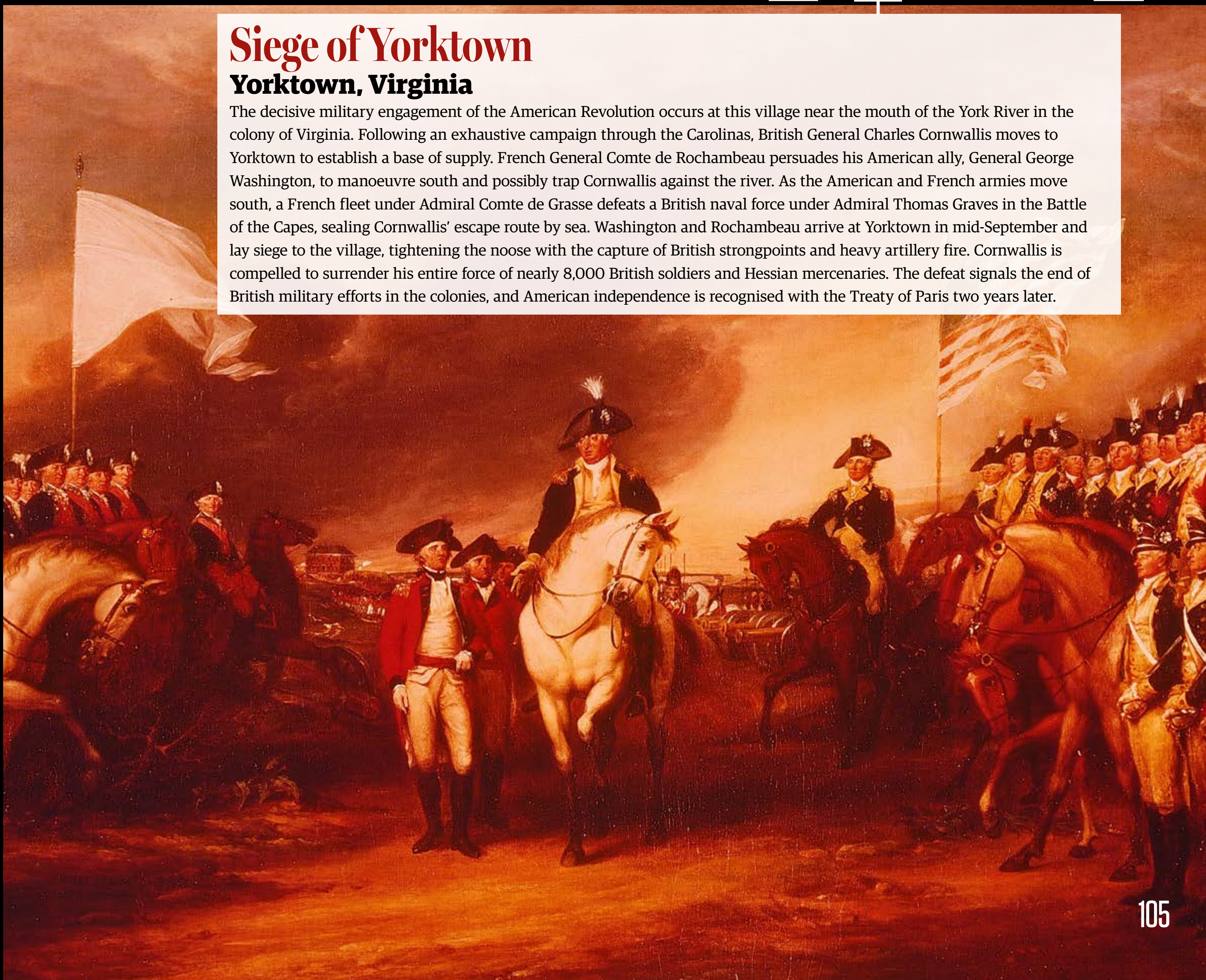
setts

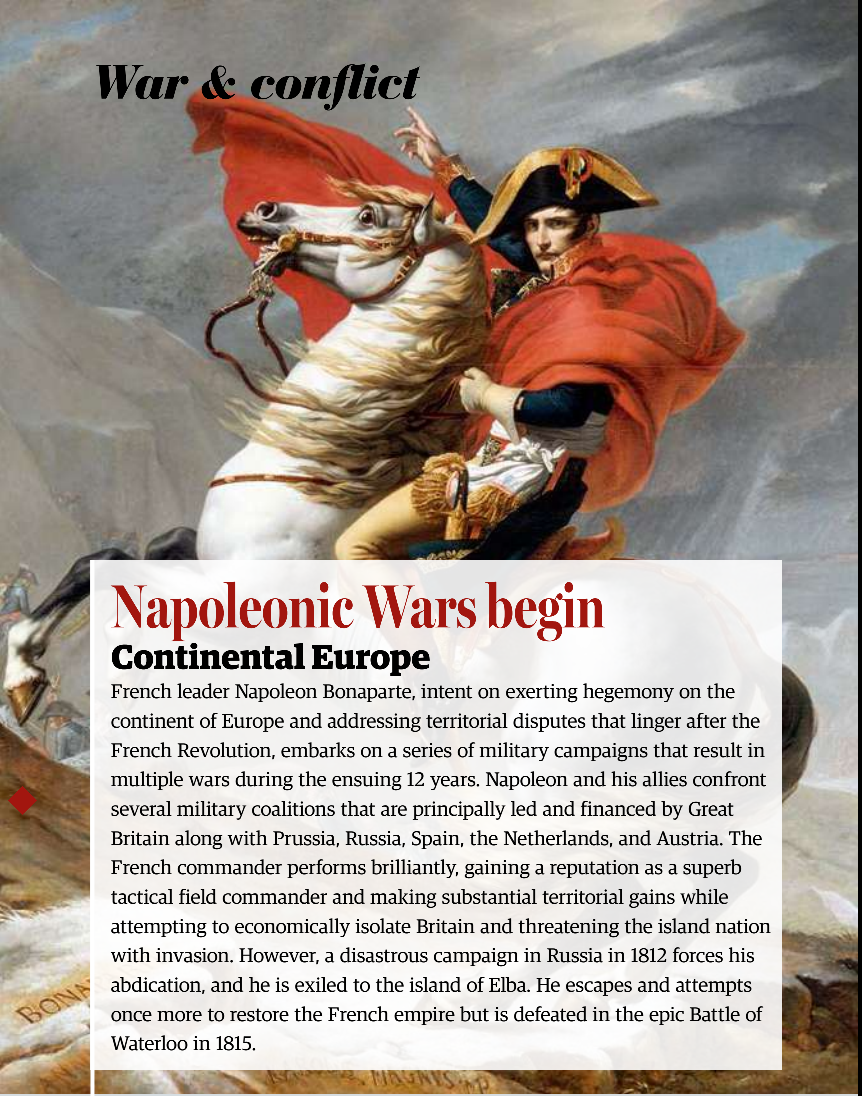
Siege of Yorktown

Yorktown, Virginia

1781

The decisive military engagement of the American Revolution occurs at this village near the mouth of the York River in the colony of Virginia. Following an exhaustive campaign through the Carolinas, British General Charles Cornwallis moves to Yorktown to establish a base of supply. French General Comte de Rochambeau persuades his American ally, General George Washington, to manoeuvre south and possibly trap Cornwallis against the river. As the American and French armies move south, a French fleet under Admiral Comte de Grasse defeats a British naval force under Admiral Thomas Graves in the Battle of the Capes, sealing Cornwallis' escape route by sea. Washington and Rochambeau arrive at Yorktown in mid-September and lay siege to the village, tightening the noose with the capture of British strongpoints and heavy artillery fire. Cornwallis is compelled to surrender his entire force of nearly 8,000 British soldiers and Hessian mercenaries. The defeat signals the end of British military efforts in the colonies, and American independence is recognised with the Treaty of Paris two years later.



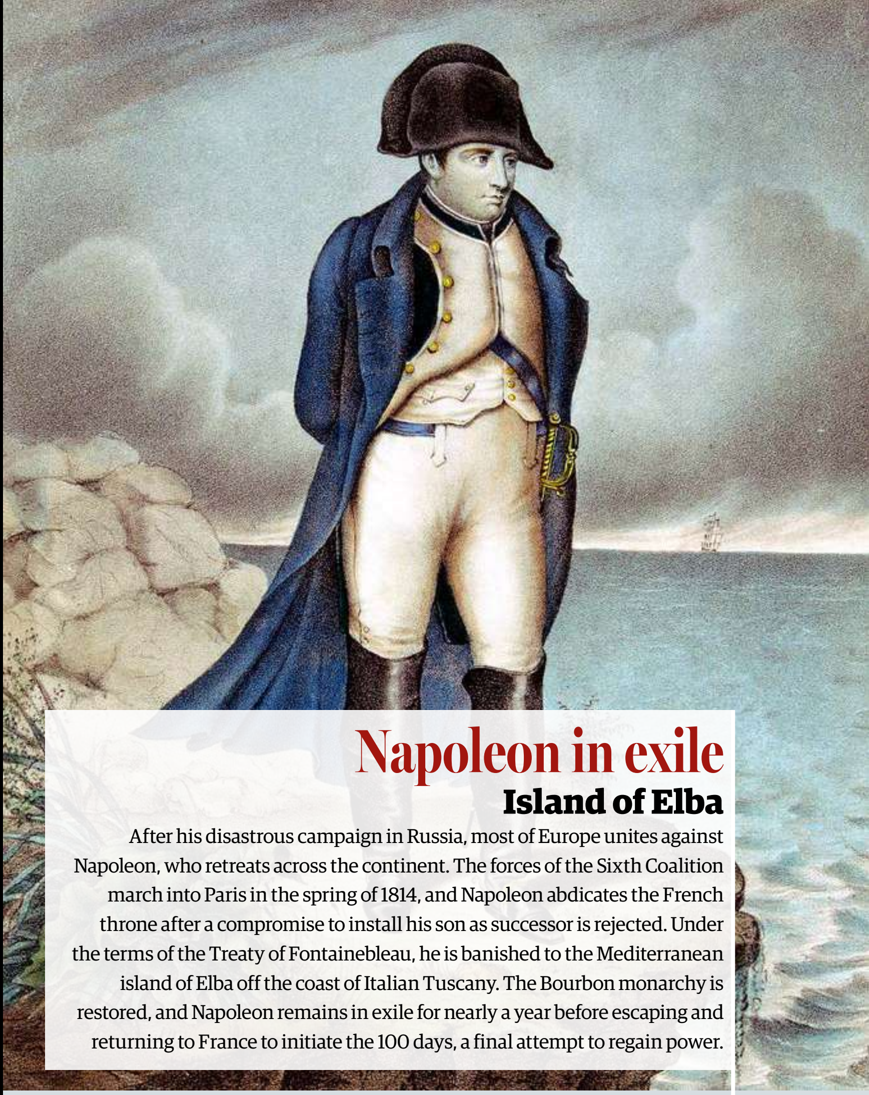


1803

Napoleonic Wars begin

Continental Europe

French leader Napoleon Bonaparte, intent on exerting hegemony on the continent of Europe and addressing territorial disputes that linger after the French Revolution, embarks on a series of military campaigns that result in multiple wars during the ensuing 12 years. Napoleon and his allies confront several military coalitions that are principally led and financed by Great Britain along with Prussia, Russia, Spain, the Netherlands, and Austria. The French commander performs brilliantly, gaining a reputation as a superb tactical field commander and making substantial territorial gains while attempting to economically isolate Britain and threatening the island nation with invasion. However, a disastrous campaign in Russia in 1812 forces his abdication, and he is exiled to the island of Elba. He escapes and attempts once more to restore the French empire but is defeated in the epic Battle of Waterloo in 1815.

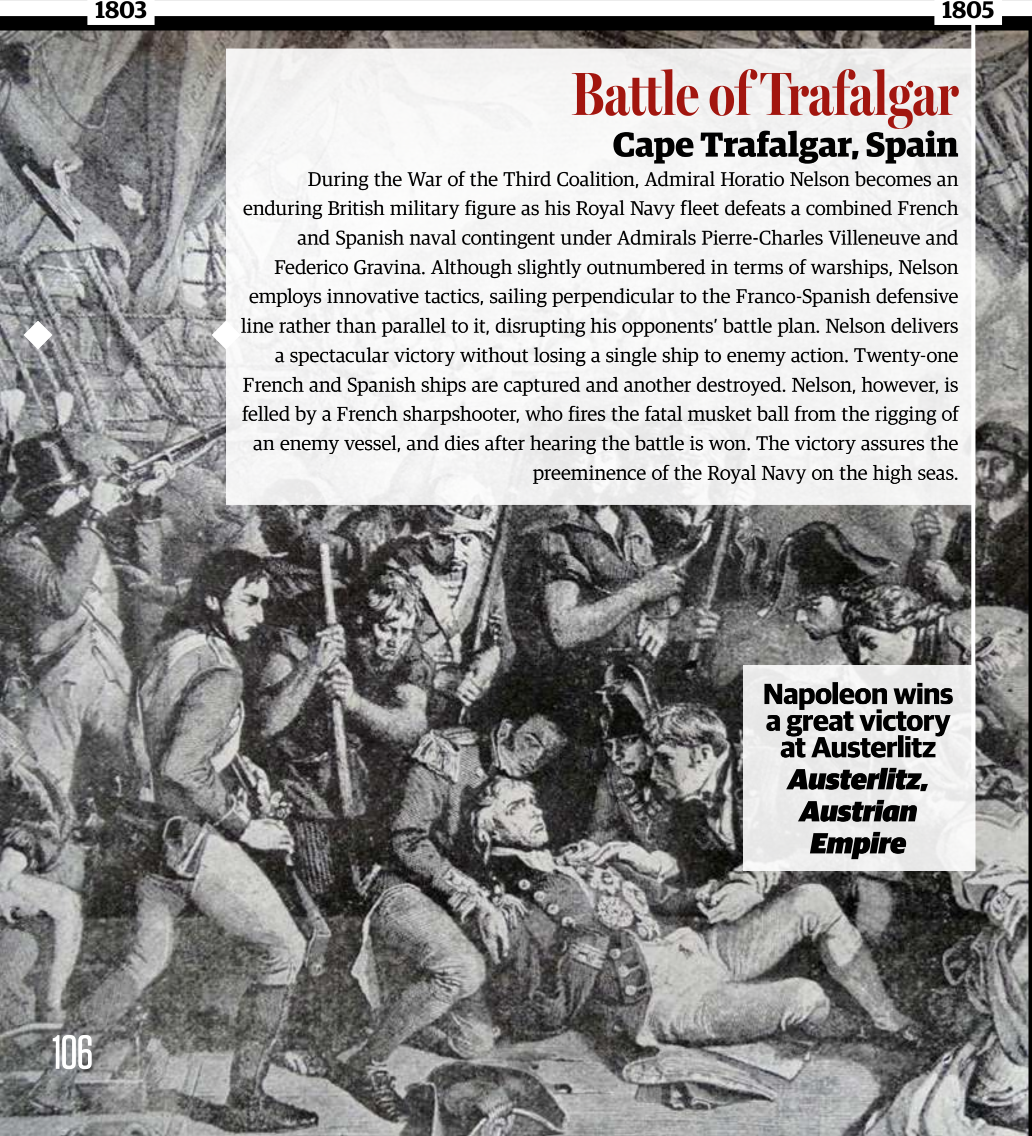


1814

Napoleon in exile

Island of Elba

After his disastrous campaign in Russia, most of Europe unites against Napoleon, who retreats across the continent. The forces of the Sixth Coalition march into Paris in the spring of 1814, and Napoleon abdicates the French throne after a compromise to install his son as successor is rejected. Under the terms of the Treaty of Fontainebleau, he is banished to the Mediterranean island of Elba off the coast of Italian Tuscany. The Bourbon monarchy is restored, and Napoleon remains in exile for nearly a year before escaping and returning to France to initiate the 100 days, a final attempt to regain power.



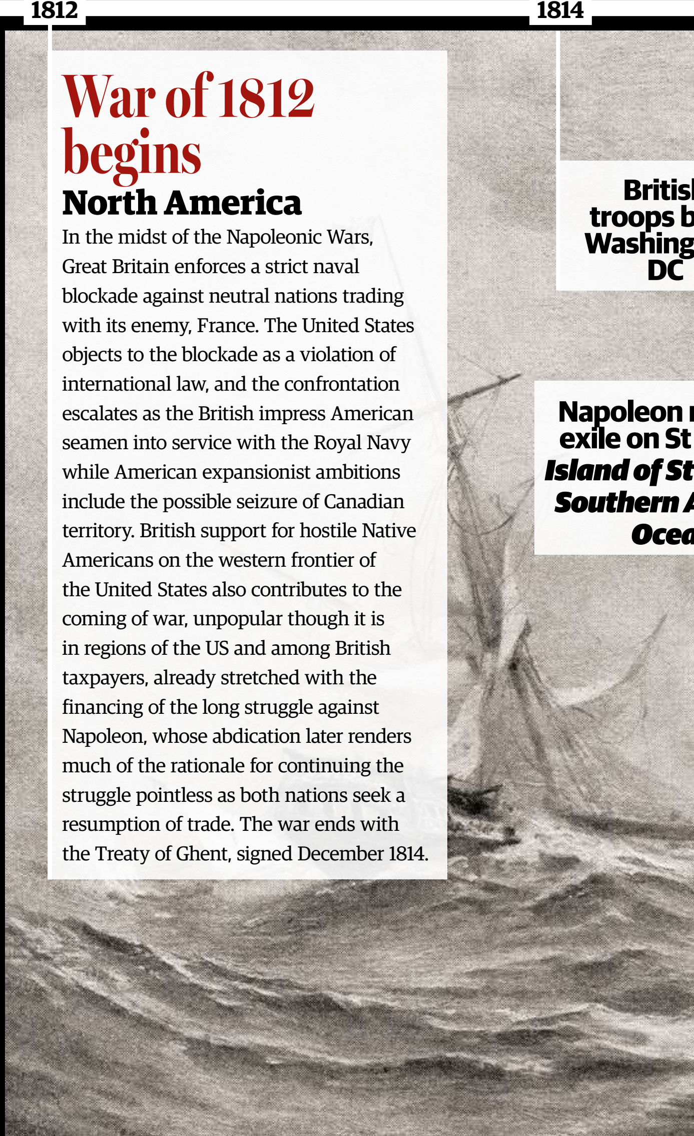
1805

Battle of Trafalgar

Cape Trafalgar, Spain

During the War of the Third Coalition, Admiral Horatio Nelson becomes an enduring British military figure as his Royal Navy fleet defeats a combined French and Spanish naval contingent under Admirals Pierre-Charles Villeneuve and Federico Gravina. Although slightly outnumbered in terms of warships, Nelson employs innovative tactics, sailing perpendicular to the Franco-Spanish defensive line rather than parallel to it, disrupting his opponents' battle plan. Nelson delivers a spectacular victory without losing a single ship to enemy action. Twenty-one French and Spanish ships are captured and another destroyed. Nelson, however, is felled by a French sharpshooter, who fires the fatal musket ball from the rigging of an enemy vessel, and dies after hearing the battle is won. The victory assures the preeminence of the Royal Navy on the high seas.

Napoleon wins a great victory at Austerlitz
Austerlitz, Austrian Empire



1812

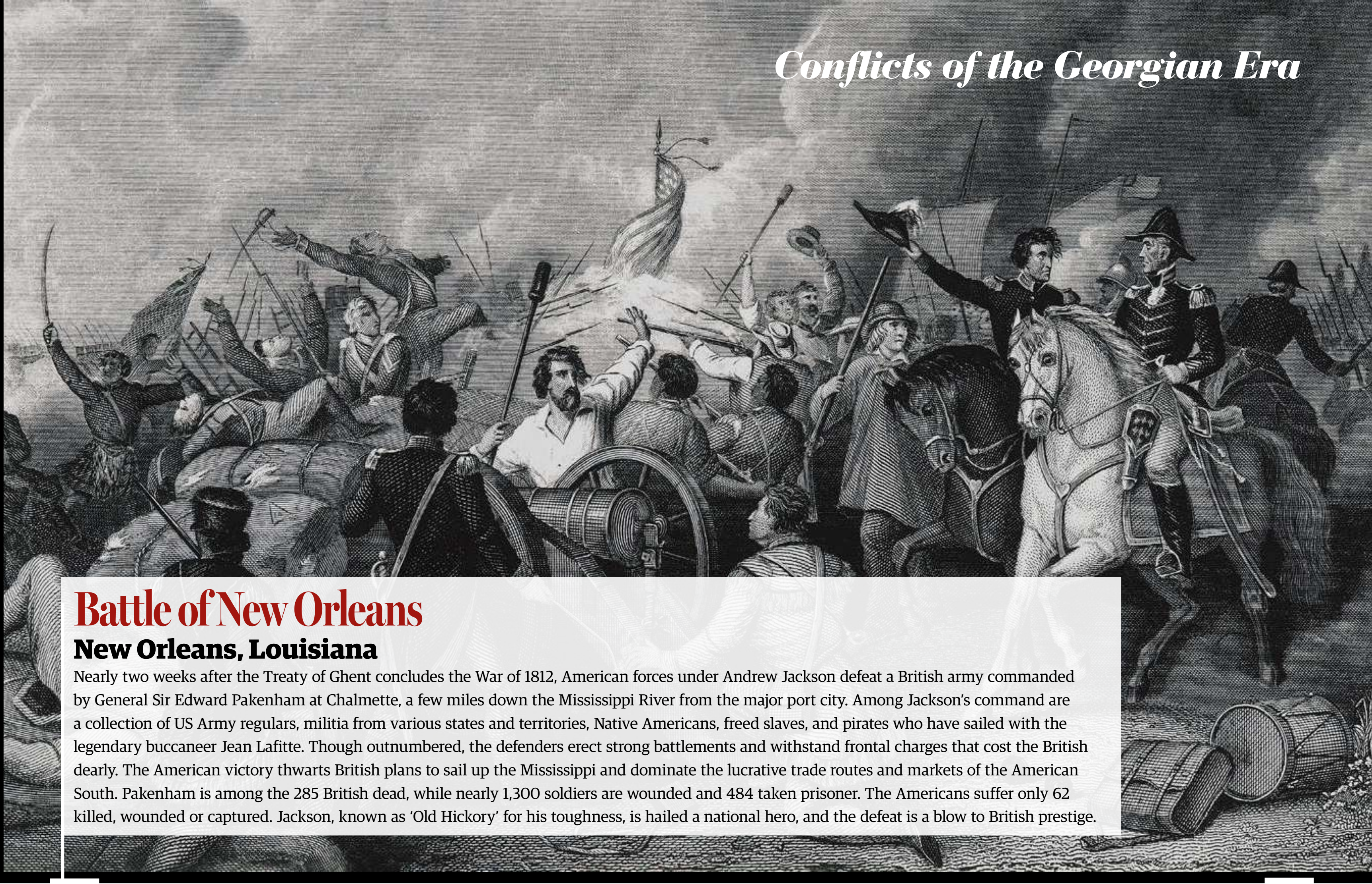
War of 1812 begins

North America

In the midst of the Napoleonic Wars, Great Britain enforces a strict naval blockade against neutral nations trading with its enemy, France. The United States objects to the blockade as a violation of international law, and the confrontation escalates as the British impress American seamen into service with the Royal Navy while American expansionist ambitions include the possible seizure of Canadian territory. British support for hostile Native Americans on the western frontier of the United States also contributes to the coming of war, unpopular though it is in regions of the US and among British taxpayers, already stretched with the financing of the long struggle against Napoleon, whose abdication later renders much of the rationale for continuing the struggle pointless as both nations seek a resumption of trade. The war ends with the Treaty of Ghent, signed December 1814.

Britis troops b Washing DC

Napoleon r exile on St
Island of St Southern A Ocea



Battle of New Orleans

New Orleans, Louisiana

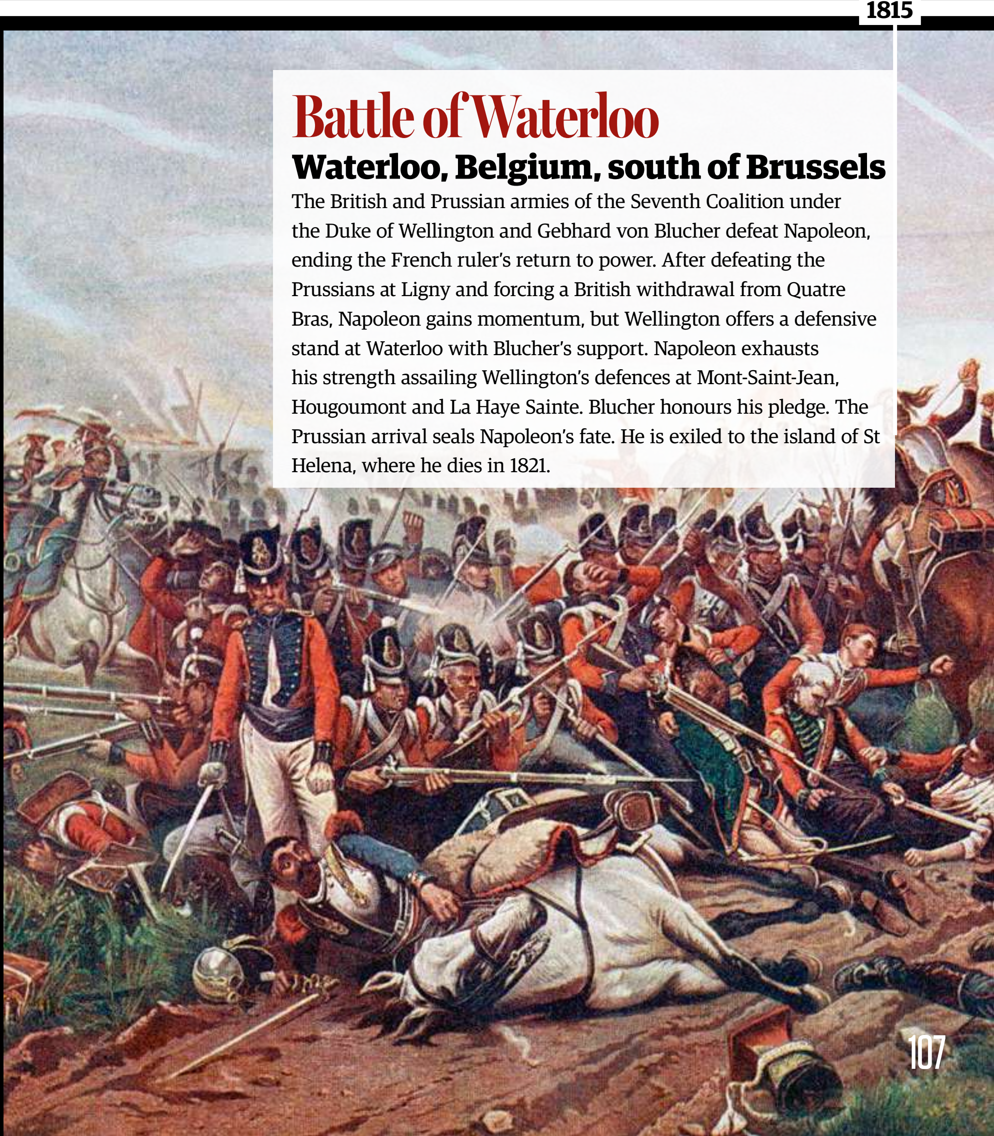
Nearly two weeks after the Treaty of Ghent concludes the War of 1812, American forces under Andrew Jackson defeat a British army commanded by General Sir Edward Pakenham at Chalmette, a few miles down the Mississippi River from the major port city. Among Jackson's command are a collection of US Army regulars, militia from various states and territories, Native Americans, freed slaves, and pirates who have sailed with the legendary buccaneer Jean Lafitte. Though outnumbered, the defenders erect strong battlements and withstand frontal charges that cost the British dearly. The American victory thwarts British plans to sail up the Mississippi and dominate the lucrative trade routes and markets of the American South. Pakenham is among the 285 British dead, while nearly 1,300 soldiers are wounded and 484 taken prisoner. The Americans suffer only 62 killed, wounded or captured. Jackson, known as 'Old Hickory' for his toughness, is hailed a national hero, and the defeat is a blow to British prestige.

1815

h
ourn
ton,

reaches
Helena
Helena,
Atlantic
an

1815



Battle of Waterloo

Waterloo, Belgium, south of Brussels

The British and Prussian armies of the Seventh Coalition under the Duke of Wellington and Gebhard von Blucher defeat Napoleon, ending the French ruler's return to power. After defeating the Prussians at Ligny and forcing a British withdrawal from Quatre Bras, Napoleon gains momentum, but Wellington offers a defensive stand at Waterloo with Blucher's support. Napoleon exhausts his strength assailing Wellington's defences at Mont-Saint-Jean, Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte. Blucher honours his pledge. The Prussian arrival seals Napoleon's fate. He is exiled to the island of St Helena, where he dies in 1821.

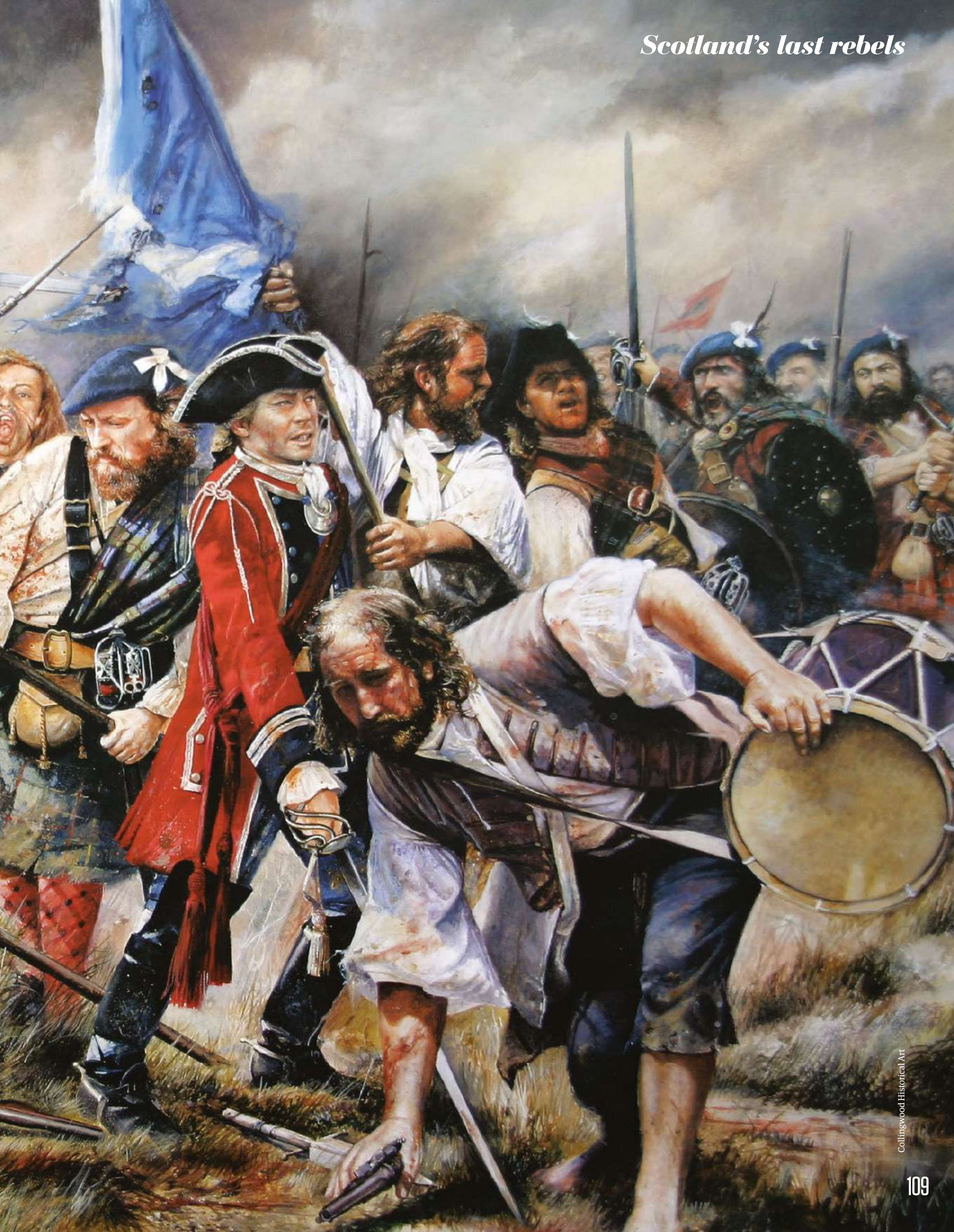
SCOTLAND'S LAST REBELS

After decades of conflict, the Jacobites and their new leader Bonnie Prince Charlie were ready for one final showdown

Written by Jack Griffiths

16 years on from the disastrous loss at the Battle of Glen Shiel, the time had come for the fifth and final Jacobite uprising. Prince Charles Edward Stuart, the claimant to the English and Scottish thrones, had sailed to Scotland intent on restoring the Catholic House of Stuart and reversing the Glorious Revolution. Sailing from France, the Young Pretender had struck a deal with Irish merchants in Nantes for safe passage to Britain that would remain undetected by the Royal Navy. He arrived with just seven men and his own confidence in his rightful claim. The prince was sure of a victory for the Jacobite cause and would triumph where his father, James Francis Edward Stuart, had failed. Within a short period, Bonnie Prince Charlie had galvanised support from Wales and Ireland and also the Tory Party in London, who were plotting to end the Whigs' monopoly of power in the capital. The timing was ideal, as George II's weary British Army had been engaged on the continent for five years in the War of Austrian Succession and was not at full strength at the time of the prince's landing. The March of '45 was about to begin, to glory or the grave. The 1745 rebellion was originally meant to take place in 1739. Britain had spread its forces over Europe in aid of Austria, so France and Spain saw the perfect opportunity to invade the British Isles. This alliance would have been of great benefit to the Jacobite cause, but poor weather conditions and a hesitation in planning led to the two European powers pulling their support. As the threat from the continent died down in England, Bonnie Prince Charlie made his move and sailed to the beaches of Eriskay, Outer Hebrides, on 23 July 1745 with seven companions. Known as The Seven Men of Moidart, they were four Irishmen, two Scots and one Englishman who had accompanied the prince across the North Sea.

They arrived to find the Jacobite clans at a low ebb. With numerous defeats at the hands of the British under their belts, the clans felt that another uprising would prove futile. The 24-year-old Young Pretender, Bonnie Prince Charlie, oozing with self-assurance and arrogance, roused the Highlanders and the chiefs of both Clan Cameron and MacDonald for one last rebellion that would this time take back the British throne for the House of Stuart.



Collingwood Historical Art

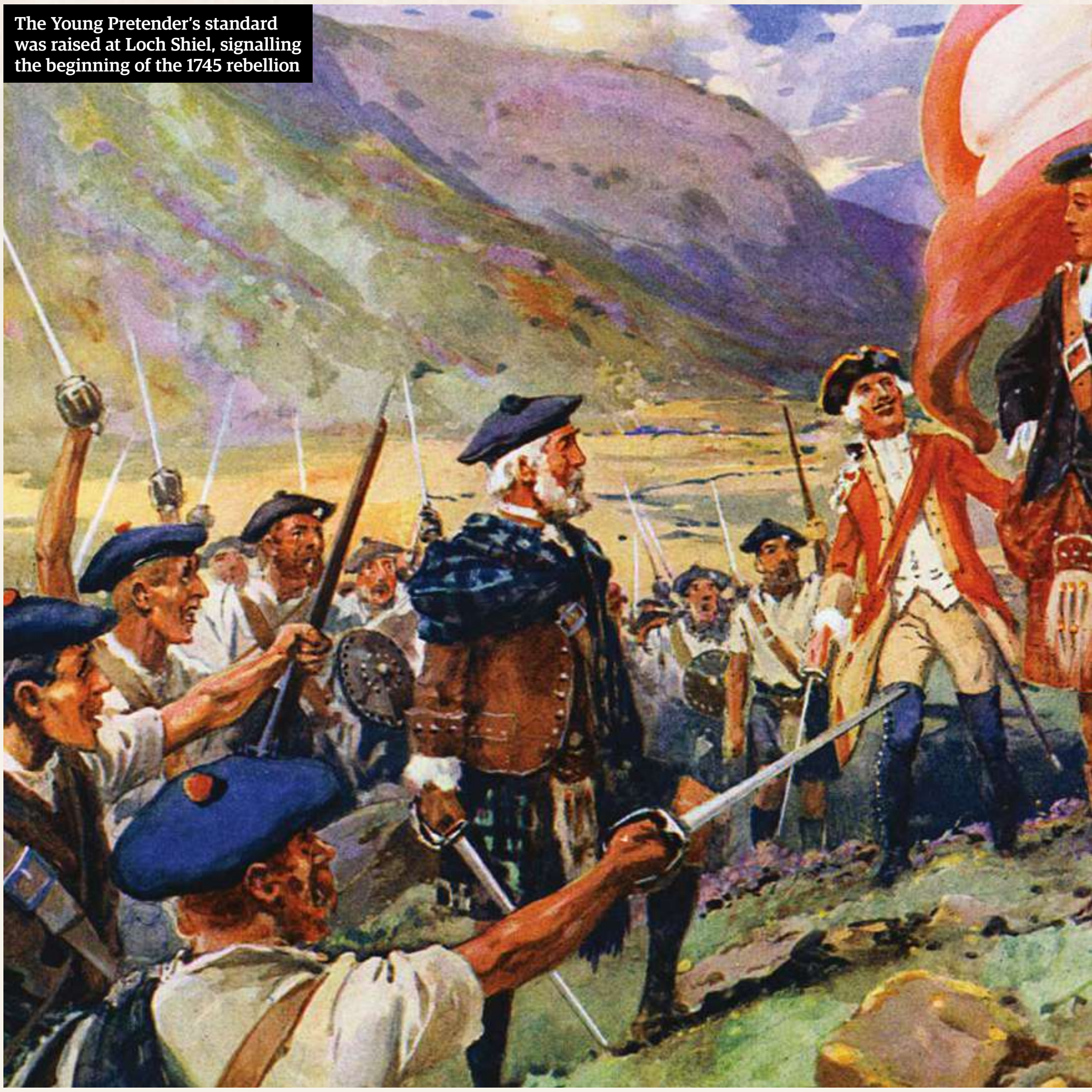
Bonnie Prince Charlie made the village of Glenfinnan his first stronghold and his standard was raised there on 19 August. From here he assembled 1,500 Highlanders and captured the much larger city of Perth. Prince Charles rode into Perth in full highland dress in the guise of his famed ancestor Robert the Bruce. The uprising then went one step further as they captured Edinburgh without a fight. The new de facto leader was high in confidence and triumphantly proclaimed his father as King James VIII of Scotland and III of England.

The rebellion takes flight

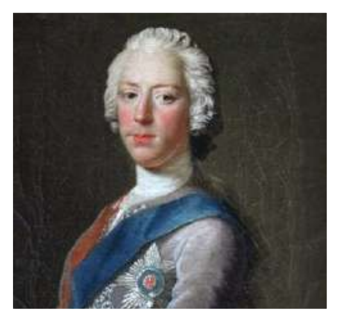
The Jacobite advance didn't go unnoticed in London and by September an armed response was on its way. Led by the experienced General Sir John Cope, a pitched battle took place at Prestonpans, just east of Edinburgh. Both sides numbered about 3,000 men as the Hanoverians positioned their defences between a stone wall and a bog. The British Army was made up of professional, but weary, infantry, dragoons and a mighty artillery of six 1.5-pounder galloper guns and six mortars.

It seemed to all that the poorly armed Jacobite force of farmers and peasants was there for the

> "With numerous defeats, the clans felt that another uprising would prove futile"

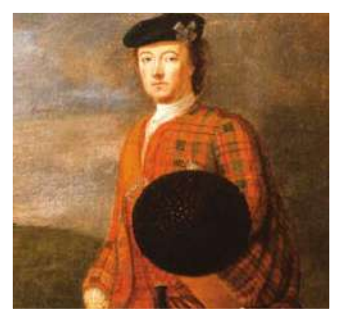

The Young Pretender's standard was raised at Loch Shiel, signalling the beginning of the 1745 rebellion

Key figures of the Rebellion



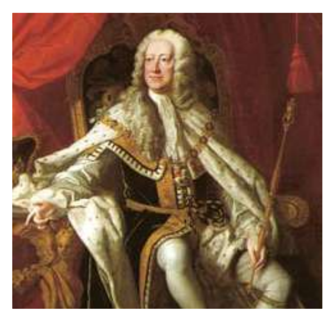
PRINCE CHARLES EDWARD STUART

The charismatic leader of the Jacobites made up for what he lacked in military intellect with an unwavering self confidence. The son of the heir to the House of Stuart, Bonnie Prince Charlie wanted nothing more than to hit back at the Hanoverians. Could the Young Pretender galvanise the Jacobites?



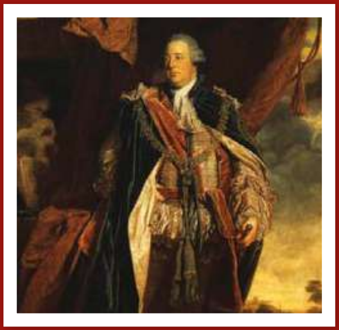
LORD LIEUTENANT-GENERAL GEORGE MURRAY

The prince's right-hand man was a professional soldier and a veteran of the 1715 and 1719 uprisings. After a period of exile from Scotland, he originally declined to support the 1745 rebellion but soon changed his mind. He often disagreed with the prince but went on to prove himself an astute military leader.



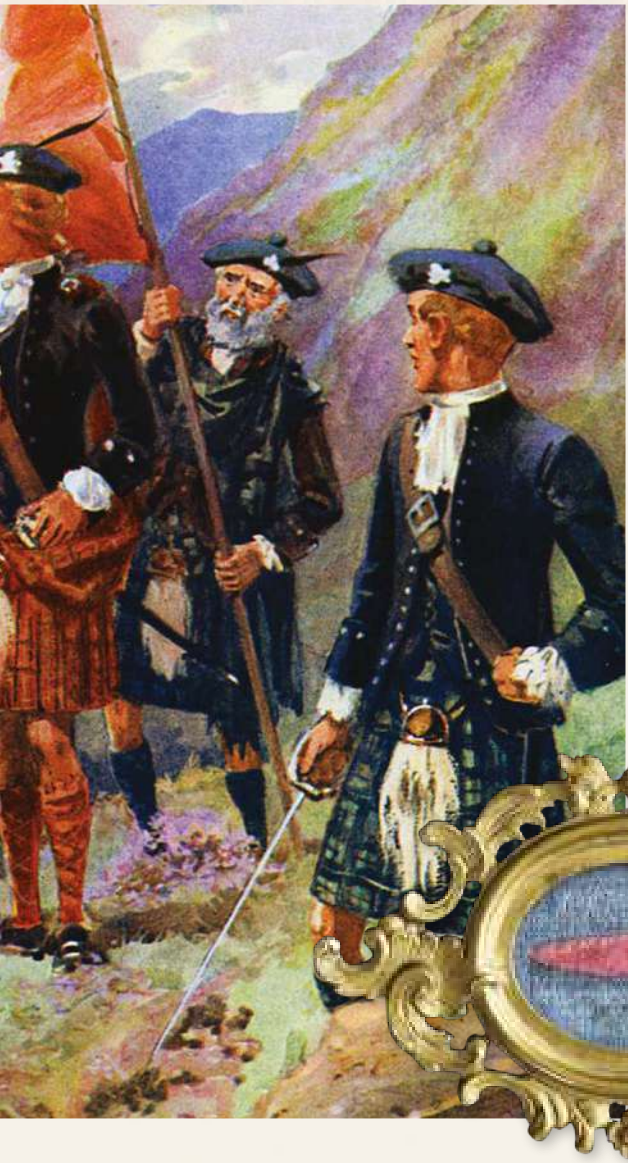
KING GEORGE II

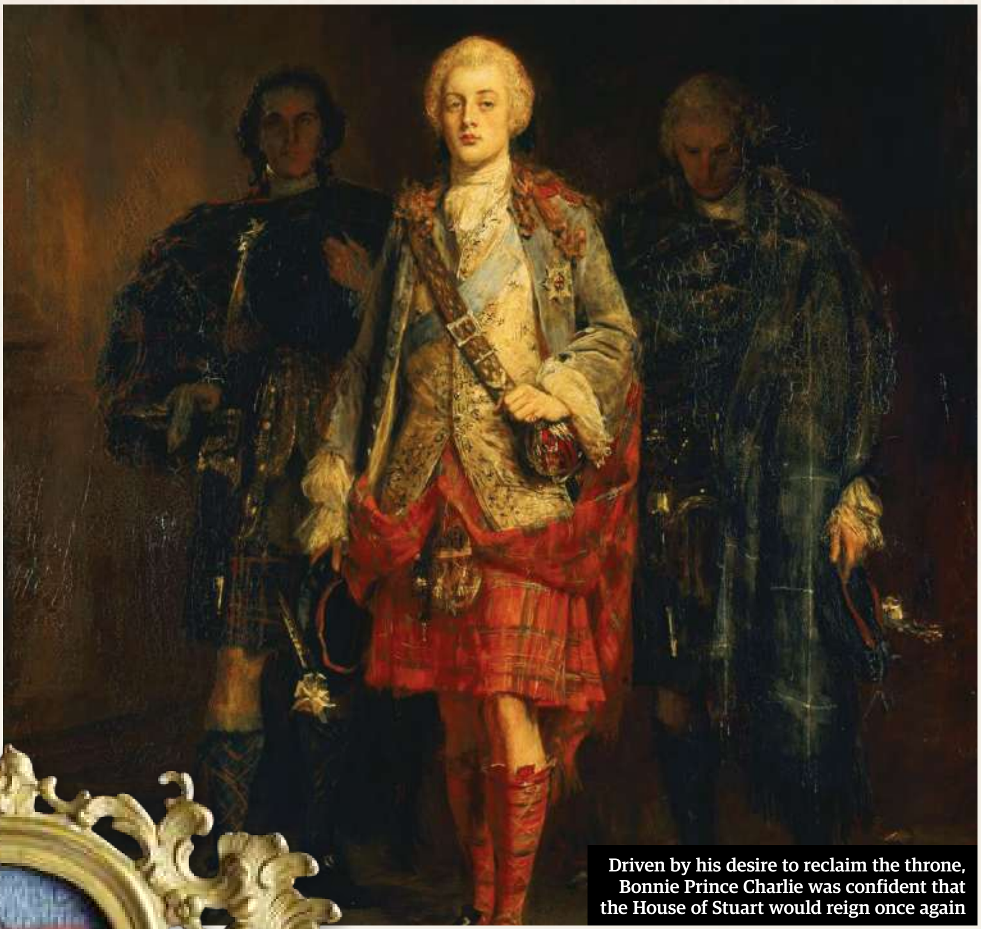
The second Hanoverian king of Great Britain and Ireland had been on the throne for 18 years by the time of the Jacobite rebellion. With his military forces engaged in war on the continent, the Jacobites proved to be a big problem for the king, who was allegedly ready and willing to flee London.



PRINCE WILLIAM, DUKE OF CUMBERLAND

The king's son was an experienced general and was recalled from the war in Europe to lead the king's forces against the Jacobites. He had put special plans in place to fight back against the Highland Charge and was ruthless in his pursuit of the Young Pretender. He was nicknamed 'Butcher Cumberland'.





Driven by his desire to reclaim the throne, Bonnie Prince Charlie was confident that the House of Stuart would reign once again

This scrap of sword hilt lining, thought to belong to the Young Pretender, is set to be sold at auction, valued at £500

> "It seemed to all that the poorly armed Jacobite force of farmers and peasants was there for the taking"

taking and the young upstart Prince Charles would be disposed of before the rebellion even began. However, after a conversation with two local men with a vast knowledge of the area, the Highlanders decided that they would utilise a hidden path to catch General Cope by surprise.

Despite an attempted mutiny, the Jacobites mobilised under the cover of darkness. The opposing camps were only 365 metres (1,200 feet) apart but the Highlanders managed to split into two groups and, undetected, one headed down the hidden path while the other seized a British baggage train.

As dawn broke, the British finally got wise and responded with artillery fire. The incensed Highlanders fought back hard with their trademark Highland Charge, straight at the artillery fire and into the British ranks. Close-quarters combat suited the Jacobites down to the ground as they entered the melee with their broadswords and nullified the Redcoats' superior firepower.

General Cope's army was unable to move from its defensive position and was routed within 15 minutes. Only about 200 troops escaped. Just 40 Jacobites were killed as the Young Pretender scored a devastating victory in the first exchanges of the rebellion. He now believed that the march south was God's will and headed onwards with 5,500 men towards the English border.

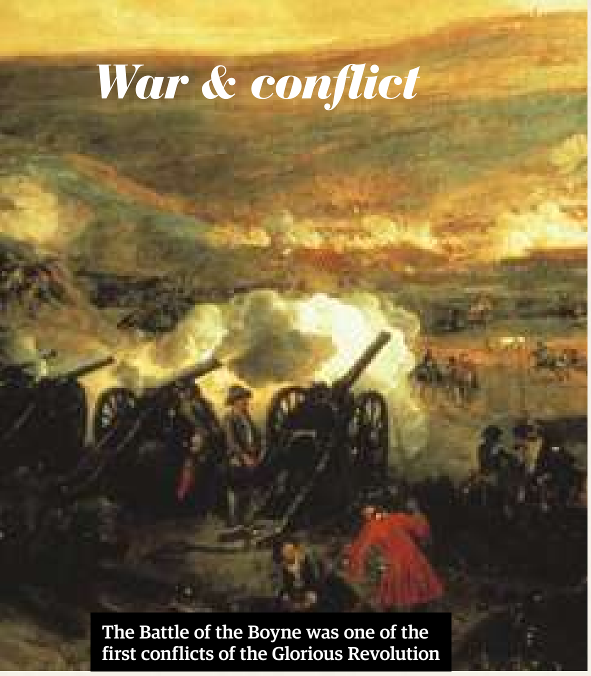
Prince Charles was on the crest of a wave after his victory at Prestonpans but instead of sweeping southwards, he paused in an attempt to gather more troops. The young prince reasoned that if he could gain the assistance of the Lowland Scots, his army would be bolstered significantly. However, the majority of the Lowlanders had no interest in the Jacobite cause and declined raising arms. This respite allowed the British Army to reorganise itself but, for the time being, there would be no stopping the Highlanders.

Over the next month, the Jacobites marched through the English towns and cities of Penrith, Lancaster, Preston and Manchester. Through every area they conquered, the Young Pretender appealed to the residents to join them on the battlefield for the march to London. Yet, just as he had found with the Lowlanders back in Scotland, the motivation to march wasn't there. Only 300 men were recruited from the conquest as the Jacobite groundswell faltered.

The Butcher

A march on London was still the primary objective, but the Jacobite high command believed that without additional troops, a retreat back home to rearm and regroup was required. Meanwhile, the British had reorganised and were now led by King George II's son, Prince William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland. A veteran of conflicts on the continent, 'Butcher Cumberland' wanted nothing more than to see the back of the rebellion.

Even though the main British force was across the Channel in Europe, Cumberland still had a good pool of soldiers to pick from. The average Redcoat was required to be aged between 17 and



The Battle of the Boyne was one of the first conflicts of the Glorious Revolution

Origins of the rebellion

The 1745 uprising was part of a political and religious storm brewing since 1688

The Glorious Revolution of 1688 was a bloodless coup that deposed King James II. The king's devotion to Catholicism was widely unpopular in England so a group of nobles known as the Seven Immortals decided to invite the Dutch Protestant Prince William of Orange to lead the country instead. The ousting of the Catholic king caused uproar in Europe and also on the British Isles. What followed was a series of uprisings in Ireland, Wales and most prominently, Scotland.

1 July 1690 Battle of the Boyne
The Jacobite, or Williamite, War took place in Ireland as James II attempted to regain his kingship from the Protestants. The war lasted nearly two years and the resistance was finally defeated at this battle.

13 February 1692 Glencoe Massacre
After the failure to sign an oath pardoning the Highland clans for their role in the rebellion, two Redcoat companies were sent to Scotland to deliver swift justice. The MacDonald Clan were targeted and more than 200 killed in the massacre.

23 March 1708 Unsuccessful French landing
A French naval battery attempted to land the Old Pretender James III on the Firth of Forth. 6,000 French troops sailed with the Stuart king from Dunkirk but were thwarted by the Royal Navy.

13 November 1715 Battle of Sheriffmuir
The 1715 uprising led by John Erskine, Earl of Mar, failed to get any further south than Perth. Sheriffmuir was the turning point as the rebellion ground to a halt.

24 September 1722 Atterbury Plot
The bishop of Rochester, Francis Atterbury, and a selection of Tory lords and earls planned to overthrow Robert Walpole and the Whig government, but they soon found themselves exposed by government spies.

45 and least 1.62 metres (5 feet 4 inches) in height. The soldiers of the crown were expertly drilled, but food, drink, clothing and equipment were deducted from their pay packet.

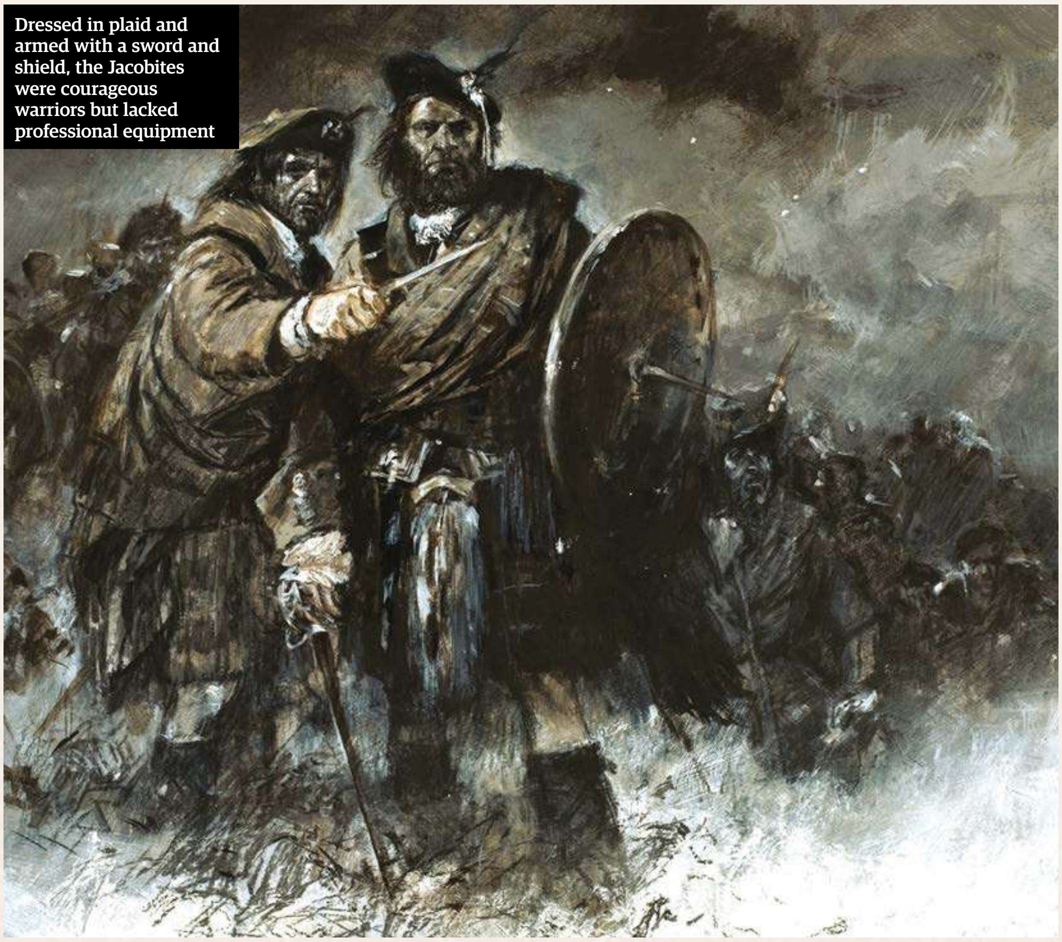
The Jacobite army was nowhere near as regimented. Upon Prince Charles' arrival, Highland clansmen were called out by their chiefs to raise arms and fight and they were joined by minimal numbers from Wales, Ireland, France and English Jacobites. Unlike the British, the Highlanders didn't have a regular cavalry and the numbers on horseback in battle depended on how many soldiers owned a horse.

On the road, the Jacobites didn't have the benefit of garrisons to lay low in. Instead, they would grab food from the towns they went through and rather than having tents, they would wrap themselves in their traditional tartan plaid to protect themselves against the elements. The route south through the rocky, hilly terrain of the Highlands was dictated by the old military roads of Scotland that had been used in earlier rebellions: Wade's Roads.

The retreat north

Although they were in retreat, the Jacobites proved their fighting spirit and skill with victories at Preston and Falkirk. Despite their successes, the Jacobite cause was swiftly losing momentum. The ragtag nature of the divisions meant the Highlanders sporadically returned to their glens on the march north, which lessened the fighting force. Worse still, the Lowland Scots, who had already rejected Prince Charles, joined the Government Army. The prince's promise of French military assistance had also come to nothing. As they had not secured the lands behind them, there was a real danger of encirclement, so the army marched back north from Swarkstone. This village on the outskirts of Derby, 193 kilometres (120 miles) from London, would be the furthest south the rebellion would ever get. The staggered

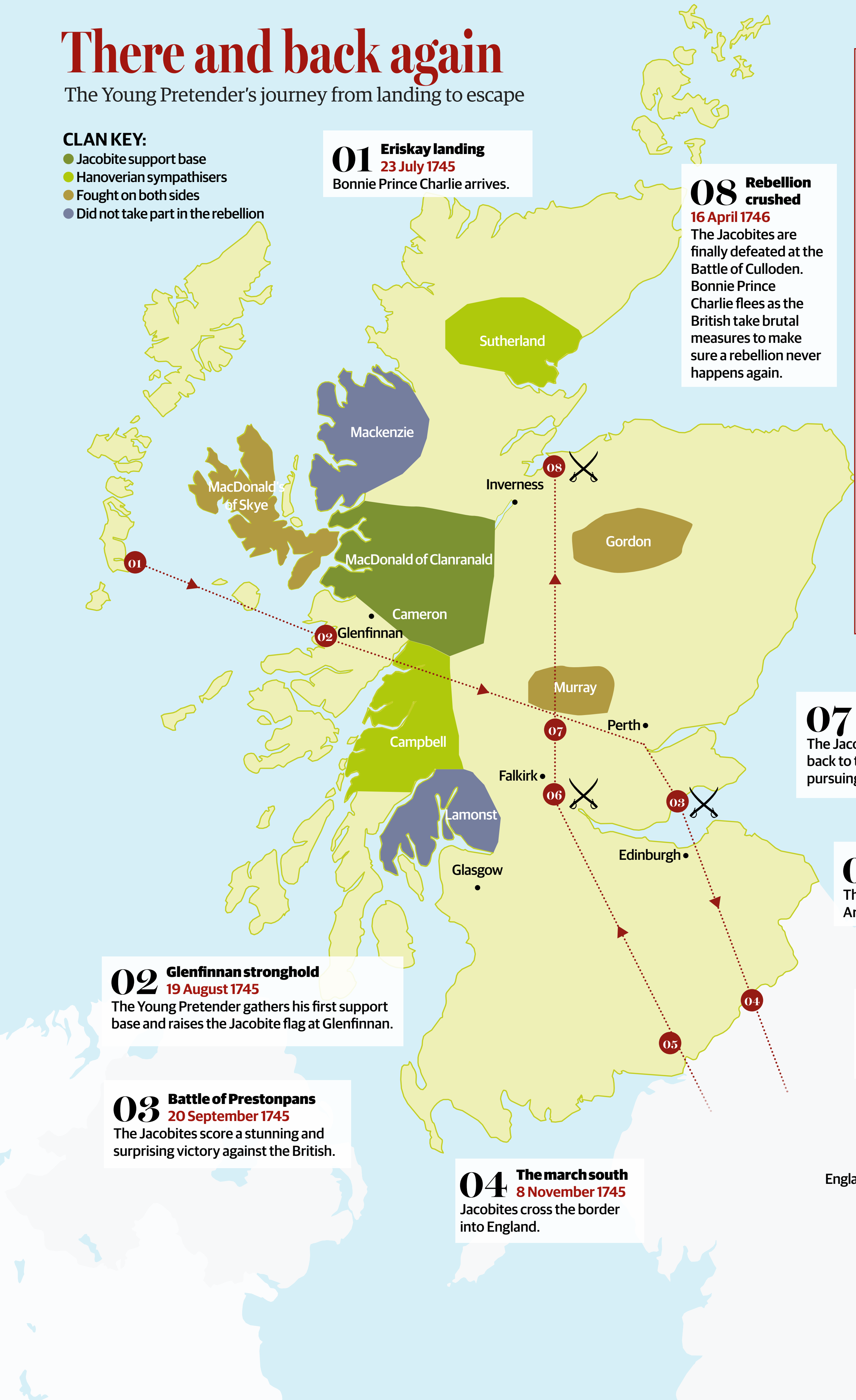
> "The Highlanders didn't have cavalry and the amount on horseback depended on how many soldiers owned a horse"



Dressed in plaid and armed with a sword and shield, the Jacobites were courageous warriors but lacked professional equipment

There and back again

The Young Pretender's journey from landing to escape



CLAN KEY:

- ● Jacobite support base
- ● Hanoverian sympathisers
- ● Fought on both sides
- ● Did not take part in the rebellion

01 **Eriskay landing**
23 July 1745
Bonnie Prince Charlie arrives.

02 **Glenfinnan stronghold**
19 August 1745
The Young Pretender gathers his first support base and raises the Jacobite flag at Glenfinnan.

03 **Battle of Prestonpans**
20 September 1745
The Jacobites score a stunning and surprising victory against the British.

04 **The march south**
8 November 1745
Jacobites cross the border into England.

05 **Retreat back home**
21 December 1745
On the prince's 25th birthday, the Jacobites retreat back into Scotland.

06 **The Battle of Falkirk**
17 January 1746
The Jacobite forces beat back the British Army but fail to take Stirling Castle.

07 **Fall back to the Highlands**
January-April 1746
The Jacobite forces gradually retreat back to the Highlands, evading the pursuing Redcoats.

08 **Rebellion crushed**
16 April 1746
The Jacobites are finally defeated at the Battle of Culloden. Bonnie Prince Charlie flees as the British take brutal measures to make sure a rebellion never happens again.

Bonnie Prince's Scottish clans

The Young pretender relied on his Scottish allies, but not all were willing to support him

CAMERON

Chief Donald Cameron of Lochiel was one of the first to join with Prince Charles and without his help the rebellion may never have begun. The chieftain and his clan fought alongside the Bonnie Prince for the whole campaign and even fled with him to Europe after their defeat.

CAMPBELL

Although some of their forces fought alongside Prince Charles, the majority of the clan joined the Hanoverians as a Highland Regiment. British-led Campbells were present at Sherrifmuir in 1715 and again in 1746 at Falkirk and Culloden. The Jacobite failure to take Fort William was down to resolute Campbell defence.

Freevectormaps.com

retreat was a success, with the Jacobites fighting off frequent British skirmishes.

By Christmas, Prince Charles and his army had made it back to Glasgow. Here, he once again appealed for assistance but the townspeople were not interested in his rapidly deteriorating mission. Both Glasgow and Edinburgh were now switching to the Hanoverian cause. The full British force eventually caught up with the Jacobites at Falkirk ten days later, where the strategic brilliance of Lieutenant-General Lord George Murray helped them succeed against better-equipped opposition.

The victory at Falkirk in January 1746 could have been a vital rebirth for the uprising, but due to growing tension between Murray and Charles, the advantage was never capitalised upon. Due to the condition of the Jacobite army, withdrawal was required but it infuriated the Young Pretender, who had London in his sights. The capital, fearful of the constant advance of the rebellion, was in a state of shock. The episode is known as Black Friday and the panic had even spread to royalty, with many accounts suggesting that King George II had his valuables packed ready to flee.

Onwards to Culloden

The Jacobite victories, though valiant, were all hollow. Fort George and Fort Augustus were captured in a month but both Fort William and Stirling Castle stood firm against the rebels. Dwindling food supplies, more leadership squabbles and an illness weakened the army even further, forcing them back to the gateway of the Highlands, Inverness. Still suffering from desertion and starvation, a stand was taken just outside the city on Culloden Moor. The last pitched battle on British soil, Culloden would be judgement day for the rebellion. Win, and a counterattack on the British could be started. Lose, and the Highlands would fall into enemy hands and the uprising would be over.

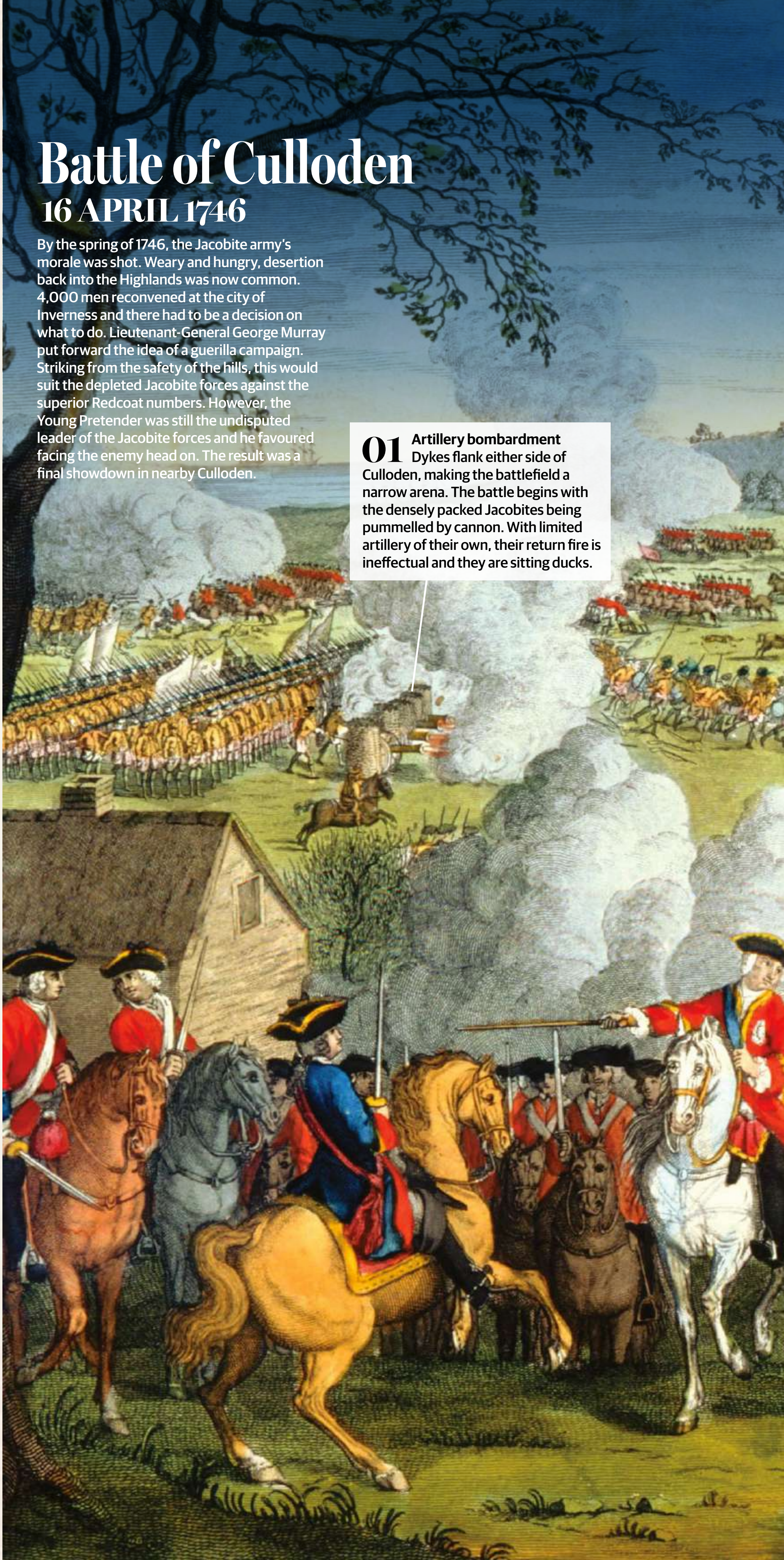
Emerging on to the field of battle, the Jacobites had discarded nearly the entirety of their captured artillery on the long road north. Murray advised Prince Charles to scatter his forces into the hills and begin a campaign of guerilla warfare. This strategy would be of great benefit to the poorly equipped Jacobites, who were less likely to be victorious in combatting the British head on. The supremely confident prince took this sound advice

> “The king’s soldiers were let loose on the nearby villages and no quarter was given”

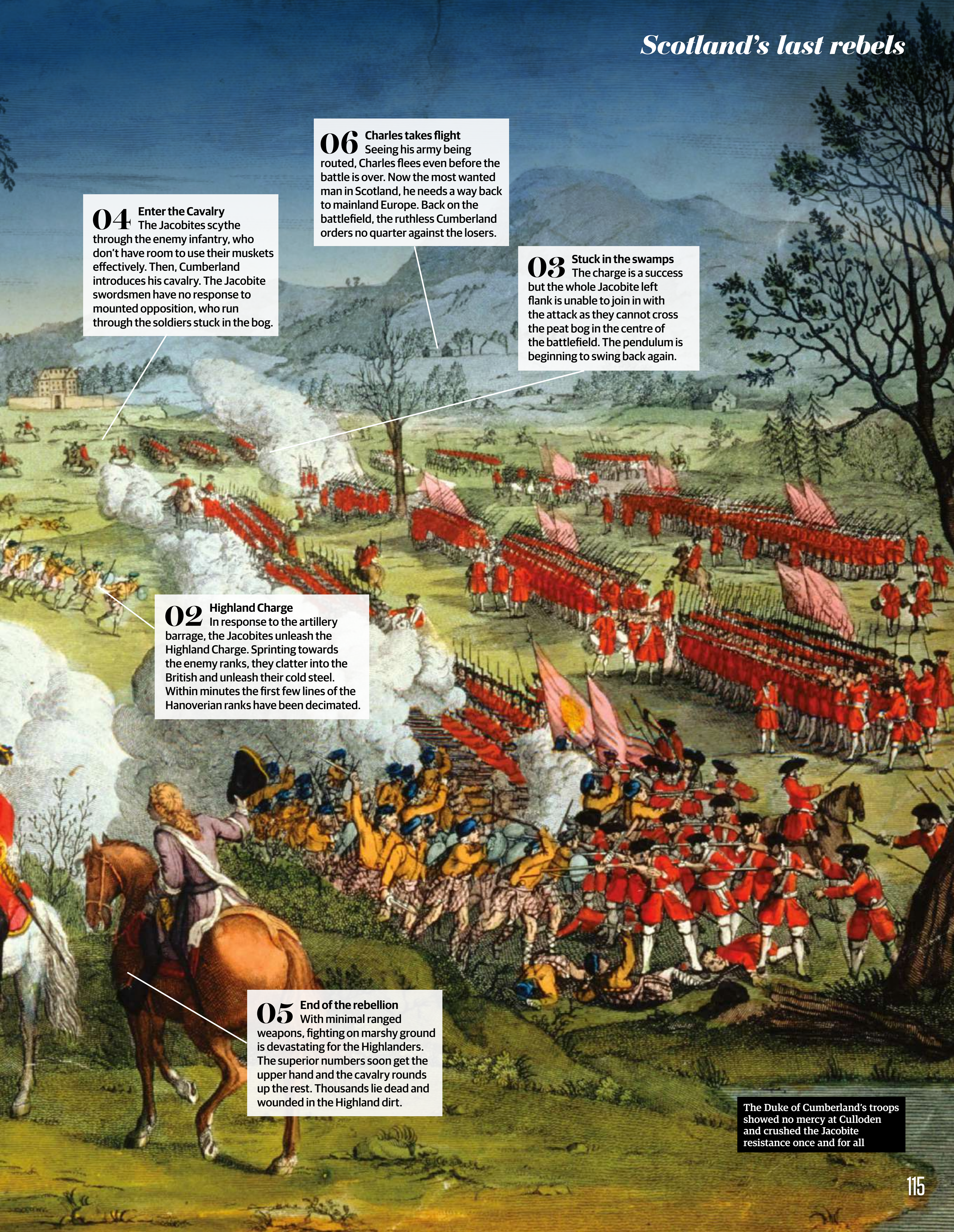
Battle of Culloden

16 APRIL 1746

By the spring of 1746, the Jacobite army's morale was shot. Weary and hungry, desertion back into the Highlands was now common. 4,000 men reconvened at the city of Inverness and there had to be a decision on what to do. Lieutenant-General George Murray put forward the idea of a guerilla campaign. Striking from the safety of the hills, this would suit the depleted Jacobite forces against the superior Redcoat numbers. However, the Young Pretender was still the undisputed leader of the Jacobite forces and he favoured facing the enemy head on. The result was a final showdown in nearby Culloden.



01 Artillery bombardment Dykes flank either side of Culloden, making the battlefield a narrow arena. The battle begins with the densely packed Jacobites being pummelled by cannon. With limited artillery of their own, their return fire is ineffectual and they are sitting ducks.



02 Highland Charge In response to the artillery barrage, the Jacobites unleash the Highland Charge. Sprinting towards the enemy ranks, they clatter into the British and unleash their cold steel. Within minutes the first few lines of the Hanoverian ranks have been decimated.

03 Stuck in the swamps The charge is a success but the whole Jacobite left flank is unable to join in with the attack as they cannot cross the peat bog in the centre of the battlefield. The pendulum is beginning to swing back again.

04 Enter the Cavalry The Jacobites scythe through the enemy infantry, who don't have room to use their muskets effectively. Then, Cumberland introduces his cavalry. The Jacobite swordsmen have no response to mounted opposition, who run through the soldiers stuck in the bog.

05 End of the rebellion With minimal ranged weapons, fighting on marshy ground is devastating for the Highlanders. The superior numbers soon get the upper hand and the cavalry rounds up the rest. Thousands lie dead and wounded in the Highland dirt.

06 Charles takes flight Seeing his army being routed, Charles flees even before the battle is over. Now the most wanted man in Scotland, he needs a way back to mainland Europe. Back on the battlefield, the ruthless Cumberland orders no quarter against the losers.

The Duke of Cumberland's troops showed no mercy at Culloden and crushed the Jacobite resistance once and for all

> “Jacobitism was no longer a political force, as a total repression of Highland and Gaelic culture got under way”

with a pinch of salt and brought his troops into the open as battle commenced.

Just like at Prestonpans, the Highlanders attacked Cumberland’s camp overnight, attempting to catch the Hanoverians off guard. This time round, however, the skirmish was misjudged – Cumberland’s forces were awake celebrating their leader’s 25th birthday. So with the element of surprise lost, the now sleep-deprived Highlanders retreated. The next day, a freezing gale tested the mettle of the 4-5,000 strong Jacobite forces and 8-9,000 government soldiers who stood 400 metres (1,312 feet) from one another. Cumberland’s men were boosted by a number of Scots who fought for the crown. The Jacobites, led directly by Charles for the first time, converged in a narrow, dense pack ready to charge. Cumberland had premeditated this tactic and trained his artillery on the centre of the group, pummelling the crowded area with fire as the Jacobites became little more than cannon fodder.

Breaking out, the Highlanders made it to the Hanoverian left flank and began slicing their way through, regiment by regiment. In response, the British unleashed their cavalry to wreak havoc with the Jacobite ranks. Because of the narrow, marshy ground, the whole Jacobite left was unable to join the attack as the cavalry swept through. Prince Charles had lost. About 2,000 Jacobites died or were wounded in the hour-long battle as the Redcoats plundered and pillaged the surrounding area for weeks after. It was here that Cumberland would earn his nickname Butcher. The Jacobites were not to rebel again, and the duke would make sure of it.

Decline of the Jacobites

The Duke of Cumberland was under orders to quash the Jacobite threat, but after Culloden it was no longer a war or even a battle, it was a massacre, an extermination of the Highland way of life. The king’s soldiers were let loose on the nearby villages and no quarter was given as houses were broken into, pillaged and then burned. An estimated 450 innocent bystanders, including women and children, were killed without remorse.

Jacobitism was no longer a political force, as a total repression of Highland and Gaelic culture got under way. Many Jacobites were packed onto prison ships for the remainder of their lives while others were deported to American plantations as slaves. Meanwhile, Prince Charles had escaped, fleeing before the battle finished, but 80 captured Jacobite leaders were tried and executed or imprisoned as an example of the price of treason.

Black Friday

Southern England was genuinely afraid of the Jacobite threat, especially in the capital

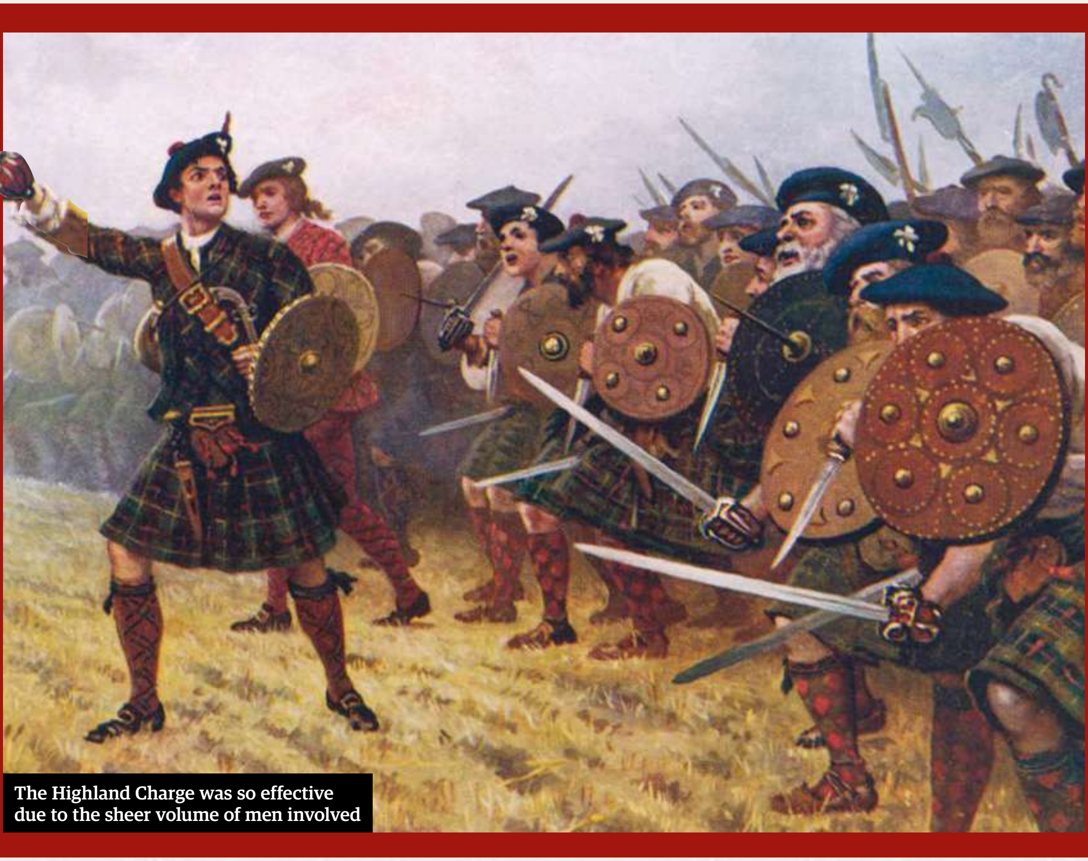
Although the legend has been embellished, there was a fear in Protestant England that the March of ’45 would succeed. In December 1745, the Jacobite forces made it to the most southerly point of their campaign. Swarkstone, a village on the outskirts of Derby, was only 193 kilometres (120 miles) from London and the southerners began to panic. The news reached London on 6 December and the residents of the capital rushed to the nearest bank to withdraw their savings. The banks of London couldn’t handle the sudden influx of requests, and the event is now known as Black Friday. However, the day was not one of celebration for the Jacobites. With their supply lines dwindling and hunger becoming a severe problem, they were forced to turn back and retreat home. The rebellion would lost all momentum as the British regrouped and pursued the Jacobites back to Scotland.

The Highland Charge

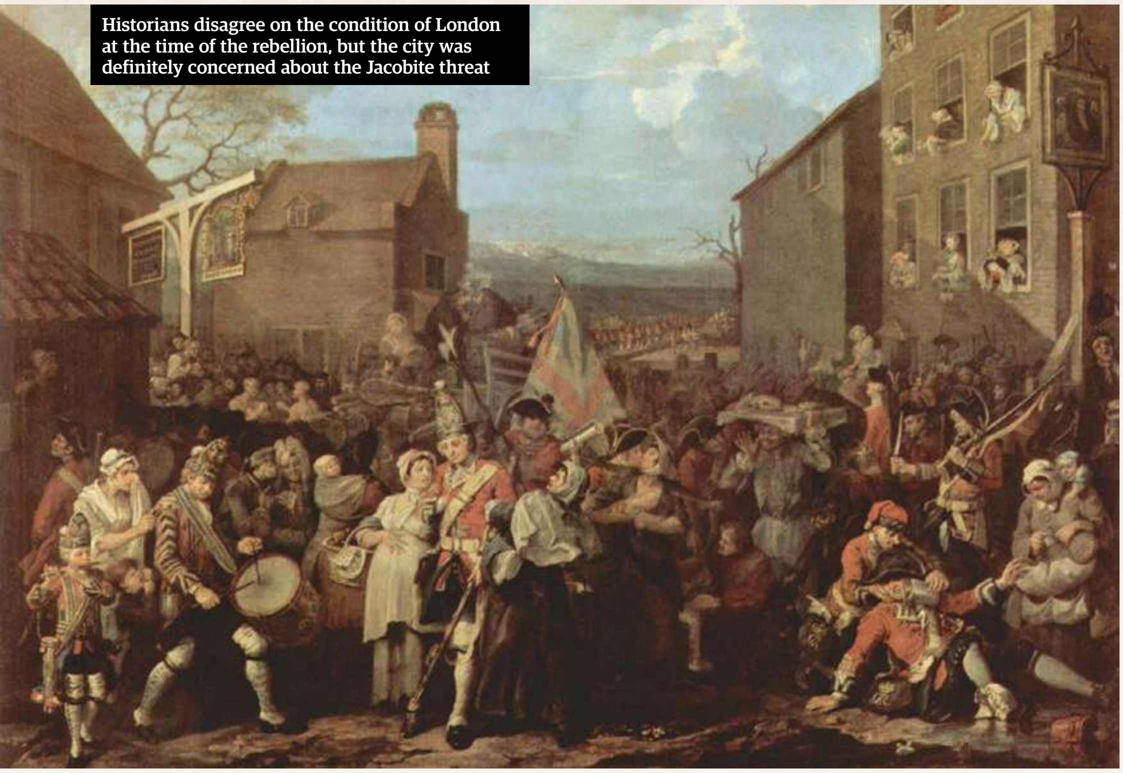
Inside the legendary Jacobite battle tactic

As terrifying as it was effective, the Highland Charge was a simple but devastating shock tactic. Occupying the higher ground at the start of the battle, the Jacobite hordes would unleash a ferocious charge at their enemies. Although many would be lost in the rifle fire against them, their sheer numbers would quickly overwhelm the British muskets.

The Jacobites were skilled at hand-to-hand combat, so would take many down as the British struggled to use their rifles and bayonets in close proximity. The strategy was used successfully throughout the rebellion, especially at Prestonpans where the British abandoned their positions at the sight of the charge. The effectiveness of the charge was nullified at Culloden, where the Jacobites were routed. Cumberland instructed his deep ranks of infantry and artillery to fire constant, relentless volleys at the charge, bringing it down before it could take any effect.



The Highland Charge was so effective due to the sheer volume of men involved



Historians disagree on the condition of London at the time of the rebellion, but the city was definitely concerned about the Jacobite threat

> "All chiefs were stripped of their power and all weapons, including bagpipes, were ordered to be surrendered"

Hunt for the Young Pretender

Tragically the Jacobites were now all too willing to seek terms and the butchery was mostly unnecessary. The Bonnie Prince now had a huge price on his head and Cumberland would turn over every town in the Highlands until he was found. With a huge bounty available to his captor, the duke was sure he would be turned in as his soldiers searched high and low.

As troops gradually swept through Scotland, many Scots still loyal to the Jacobite cause helped the scattered army hide from their pursuers. Anne Mackay, who was living in Inverness at the time, took in two wounded Jacobite soldiers and cared for them. Despite bribery and interrogation from the occupying Redcoats, she didn't give away any information or secrets and the two soldiers managed to stay hidden until March 1747, when they made their escape back to their homelands. Accounts such as this are common in the memory of post-rebellion Scotland, with the story of Flora MacDonald probably the most well known. On his retreat, the prince was anxious to escape the mainland and sought the help of Flora. With Charles disguised as an Irish maid, the two made it to the Isle of Skye before Flora was caught and taken to London.

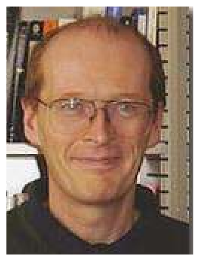
On the mainland, the clan structure of Scotland was dismantled. All chiefs were stripped of their power and all weapons, including bagpipes, were ordered to be surrendered. The wearing of all tartan plaid was forbidden and many Highlanders left their homelands and emigrated to Ireland, Europe and even as far as the Americas and Australia. Not all of Scotland was reeling from the failure of the rebellion, with Lowlanders rejoicing that the Union was still safe and they could be part of the growing British Empire. Scotland was still part of the Union and Jacobitism ceased to exist as a political and a military force. But what had happened to the Young Pretender?

Spending five months as a fugitive, Charles went from town to town trying to get transport to France. After the help he received from Flora MacDonald, he eventually managed to make his way back to France and away from his relentless hunters. He spent his time back on the continent wallowing in self pity. He became an alcoholic and after his wife left him he took up with a series of lovers and acquaintances.

In Scotland, the aftermath of Cumberland's march through the Highlands resulted in the Act of Proscription and the Heritable Jurisdictions Act 1746. Both these documents abolished the longstanding clan and chieftain systems. The Bonnie Prince never let go of his hope of reclaiming Scotland, but all his attempts at another uprising fell through. He passed away in 1788 at the age of 67. This left his brother, Henry, as the only Stuart left in the bloodline. With his death in 1807, the Jacobite line ended and it is now remembered only in song.

What would have happened if the Jacobites won?

Daniel Szechi, Professor of Early Modern History at the University of Manchester, talks alternative history and turning points



How many of the Highlanders were supportive of the Young Pretender?

Charles landed in July and only managed to muster enough troops to march south in November. So it took quite a while.

The problem is that the Scottish Jacobites had always said that they would turn out in serious numbers for a rebellion if they had the assistance of a French army. But Charles arrived virtually on his own with only one small ship full of weapons and seven men.

What was the key battle/turning point of the rebellion?

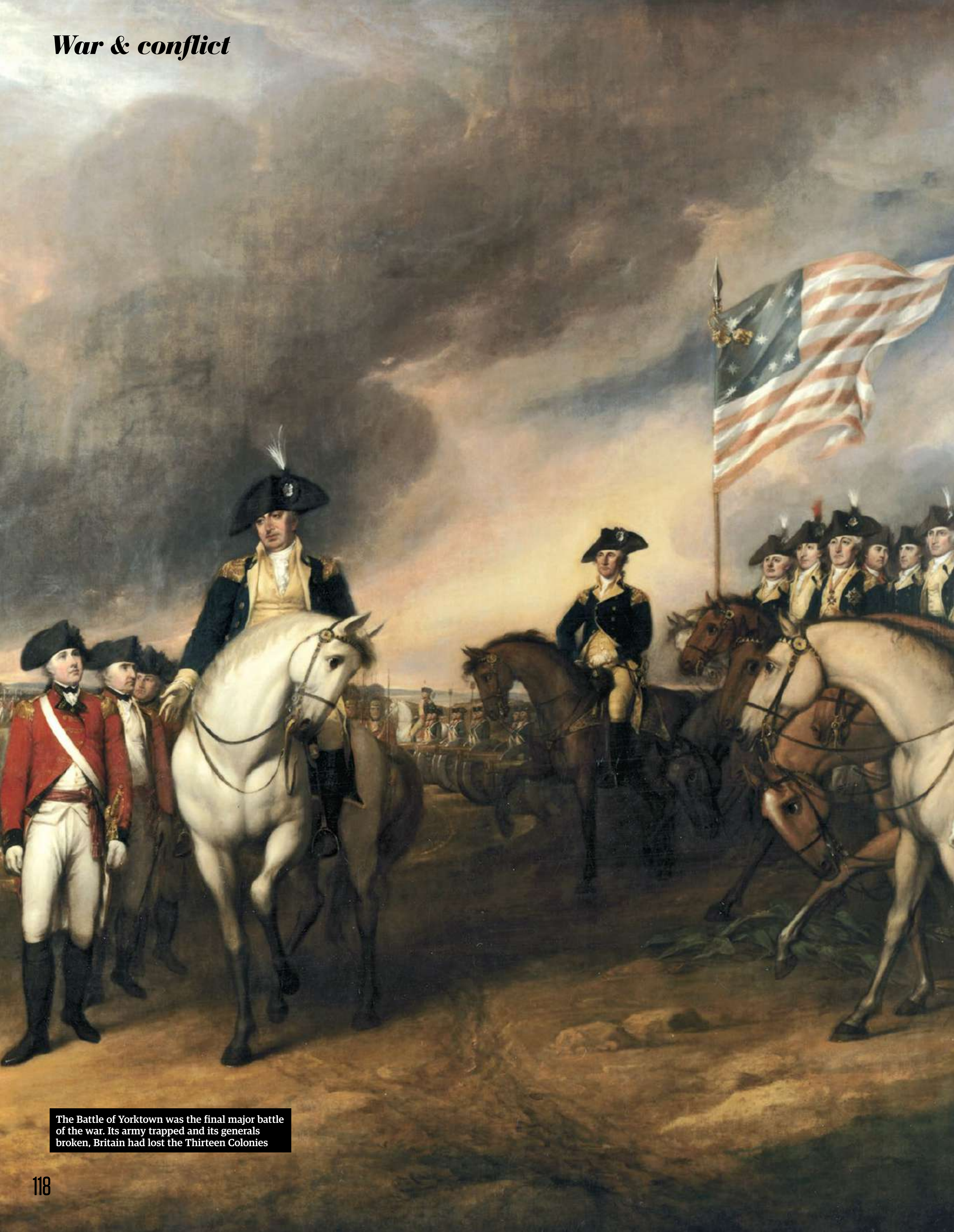
I think the Battle of Falkirk was equally as important as the Battle of Culloden. The Jacobites scored a key victory at Falkirk and if they had realised fully the situation they were in, they might have followed this up and another British army would have been completely smashed, rather than escaping in disorder and able to recover to fight another day.

What would have happened if the Jacobites had won?

The most obvious is that there would be no need for a Scottish referendum on independence, because Scotland would have been separated from England. Economically, it would have a privileged relationship with France. Scotland would have been unplugged from the new English Empire. In England, Catholics would have had full religious civil rights. Would Charles have been busy turning England Catholic? Not in a million years. The man had no religious feelings at all. England under a Stuart King would have been an ally of France, not an enemy. The American Revolution was only possible due to French intervention, so if there was a revolution, there would have been no French help to ensure it succeeded.

Could England alone have then suppressed the Americans? I cannot say.

Rex Features; Alamy



The Battle of Yorktown was the final major battle of the war. Its army trapped and its generals broken, Britain had lost the Thirteen Colonies

LOSING THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

Originating as a small revolt over tea and taxes, the American Revolutionary War had far-reaching consequences on Britain's king, its parliament and its people

Written by Jack Griffiths

In 1763 Britain's standing on the international stage was one of immense strength. Victory in the Seven Years' War, the first-ever global conflict, was a demonstration of imperial supremacy. This was especially so in North America, with Britain now sharing the continent with Spain after France had lost all of its territory. George III's British Empire was a colonial powerhouse and it seemed impenetrable.

The third Hanoverian king did have one problem: finances. The war had been a costly conflict and Britain needed to ease its national debt. Attention was turned to the Thirteen Colonies across the Atlantic. Britain rarely meddled in the affairs of its North American lands, which were essentially feeder territories that provided the empire with raw materials and a stream of income from purchased goods. Not believing there would be any major backlash, the Stamp Act was passed on 22 March 1765 and all colonists were now forced to purchase stamps with any printed material. The revolutionary fuse was lit and the long-term effects would be catastrophic.

The colonists refused to pay the new tax pointing to the idea of 'no taxation without representation' and organisations such as the Sons of Liberty and Daughters of Liberty - whose members would later become key figures in the American Revolution - led the opposition. The British response was to pass the Townshend Acts, a number of new laws that would tax the colonies further. A boycott of British goods was called and tension escalated when five colonists were shot dead by British soldiers after an angry mob had gathered outside the Old State House in Boston, Massachusetts. The event would become known as the Boston Massacre and was one of the key triggers of revolution.

An increased amount of Royal Navy warships now roamed the eastern American seaboard as Britain upped its military presence in the colonies. The Townshend Acts were ultimately all dropped, except for a duty on tea. Under the 1773 Tea Act, only tea sold by the British East India Company could now be purchased. This was enacted due to frequent smuggling and the mass reserves of tea the empire had at its disposal. This sanction was the final straw for many colonists. On the night of 16 December 1773, a group of colonists, orchestrated by future Founding Father Samuel Adams, dressed up as Native Americans and sneaked onto a British ship, dumping 340 chests of tea into Boston Harbor.

When news of the 'Boston Tea Party' reached the people of London, ministers were outraged and considered responding with military action. British prime minister Lord North reacted swiftly. He ordered the closure of Boston Harbor until the destroyed tea had been paid for, forced Bostonians to house British soldiers and installed colonial officer Thomas Gage as the Governor of Massachusetts. These were the Intolerable Acts and to many colonists, they were just that. Their introduction split the colonists into two camps: patriots and loyalists.

Those who considered themselves patriots were motivated to act, and a new strategy was coordinated at the meeting of the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia in September 1774. A rule was passed to refuse to trade with Britain while the Intolerable Acts were in place. Unknown to the British, the patriots were also training and arming for revolution.

> "Although tactically a draw, the naval engagement off the coast of Yorktown on 5 September is a strategic disaster for the British, who leave the French in control of the sea"

If war was to come, Britain was supremely confident in its military might. The Royal Navy was one of the strongest in the world and its army, although far from the professional force it would later become, was – as its opposition in the Seven Years' War knew – a force to be reckoned with. The patriots were made up of a number of local militia and minutemen that wouldn't become close to a coordinated force until the Continental Army was formed by Congress in June 1775 and led by George Washington. What the patriots lacked in experience, they made up for in morale and home advantage – the British Army's men and munitions had to be transported long distances by boat at great cost to the Crown, and would have to fight over different terrain from the rocky and cold north to the hot and humid south.

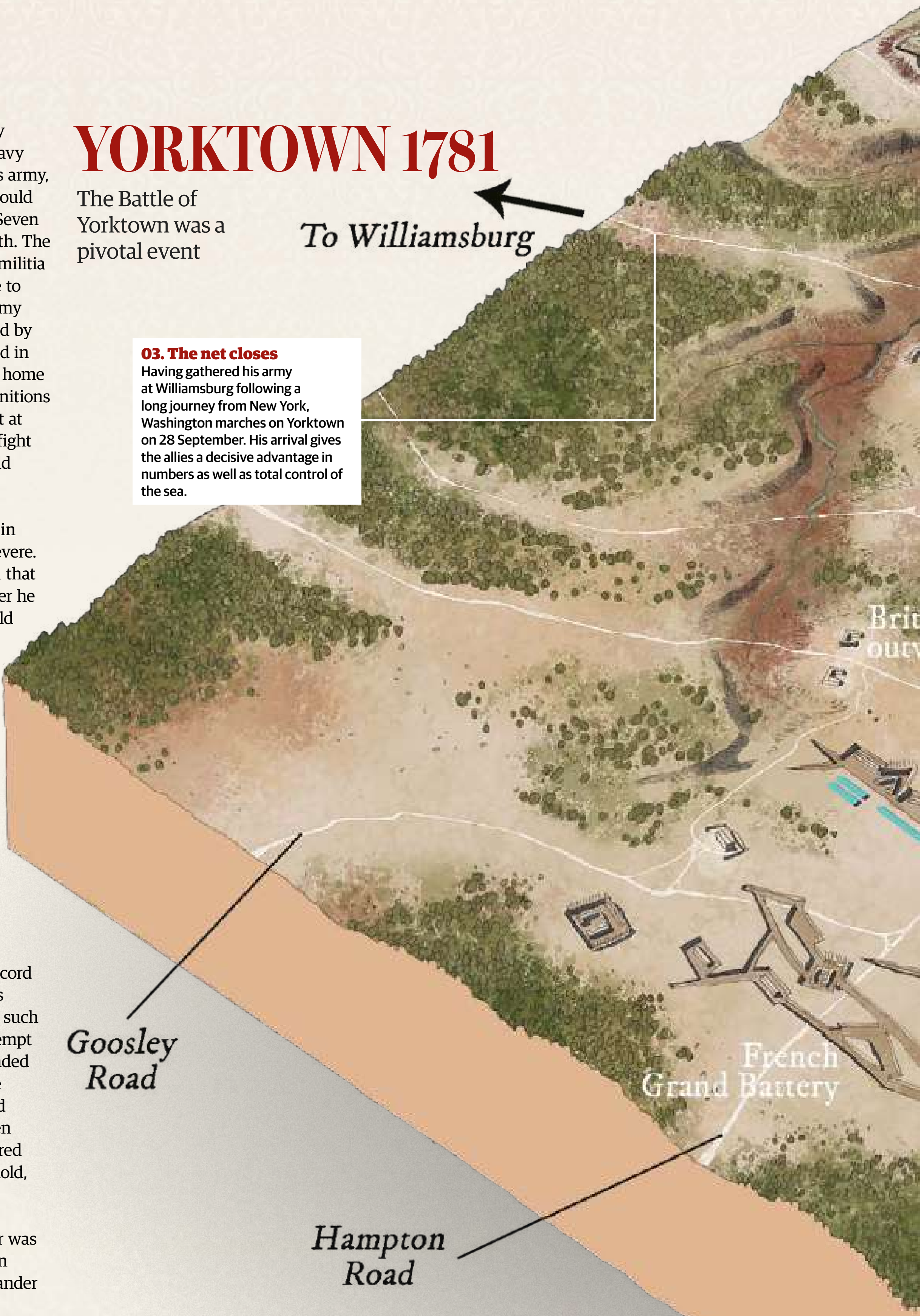
The first patriot to catch sight of British soldiers landing on the American coast was in April 1775, was Bostonian craftsman Paul Revere. Revere rode 32 kilometres to raise the alarm that the British were on the march. Two days later he noticed the lighting of two lanterns at the Old North Church in Boston – a signal that the British were crossing the Charles River to Lexington. Gage was on his way with orders to arrest revolutionary leaders John Hancock and Samuel Adams. Revere's warning allowed the two leaders to flee the town, but he and two others were caught by the British while making their escape. Only one of them managed to get away but Revere's 'midnight ride' had played its part and the patriots had been notified of the planned British aggression. Now there was no way back, it was war.

The patriots laid in wait for the British at Lexington. The Battle of Lexington and Concord began on 19 April and the first round fired is known as the 'shot heard around the world', such was its significance. The battle, a British attempt to capture munitions, was short-lived but ended in a patriot victory as the British forces were surrounded in Boston. The conflict escalated the next month further down the coast when the British-held Fort Ticonderoga was captured on 10 May by Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, the latter of whom would later defect to the British side.

One of the most famous battles of the war was a British victory. The Battle of Bunker Hill on 17 June 1775 is known for the patriot commander William Prescott's order, 'don't fire until you see the whites of their eyes'. The origin of the saying is disputed, but the importance of the battle is not. Patriot forces had placed artillery in the heights around British-held Boston, forcing general William Howe to attempt a breakout. The assault involved British attacks on several vantage points, including Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill in an attempt to clear patriot positions. The assaults were successful, but for the loss of a significant amount of men with over 40 per cent of the

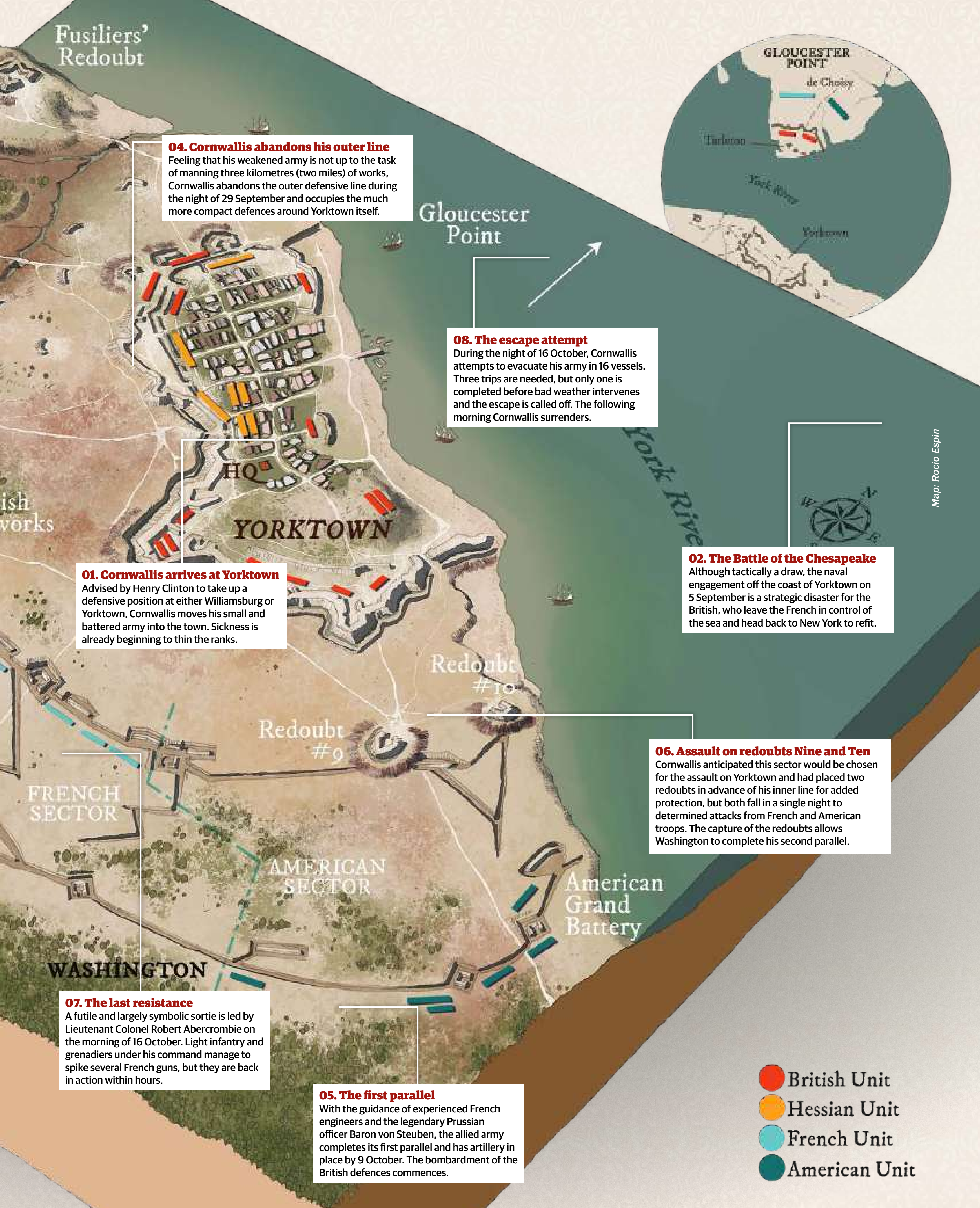
YORKTOWN 1781

The Battle of Yorktown was a pivotal event



03. The net closes
Having gathered his army at Williamsburg following a long journey from New York, Washington marches on Yorktown on 28 September. His arrival gives the allies a decisive advantage in numbers as well as total control of the sea.

> "What the patriots lacked in experience they made up for in morale and home advantage"


Fusiliers' Redoubt
GLOUCESTER POINT
de Choisy
Tarleton
York River
Yorktown
Gloucester Point
York River
HQ
YORKTOWN
ish
works
Redoubt #10
Redoubt #9
FRENCH SECTOR
AMERICAN SECTOR
American Grand Battery
WASHINGTON
N
W
E
🟥 British Unit
🟧 Hessian Unit
🟦 French Unit
🟩 American Unit

01. Cornwallis arrives at Yorktown
Advised by Henry Clinton to take up a defensive position at either Williamsburg or Yorktown, Cornwallis moves his small and battered army into the town. Sickness is already beginning to thin the ranks.

02. The Battle of the Chesapeake
Although tactically a draw, the naval engagement off the coast of Yorktown on 5 September is a strategic disaster for the British, who leave the French in control of the sea and head back to New York to refit.

04. Cornwallis abandons his outer line
Feeling that his weakened army is not up to the task of manning three kilometres (two miles) of works, Cornwallis abandons the outer defensive line during the night of 29 September and occupies the much more compact defences around Yorktown itself.

05. The first parallel
With the guidance of experienced French engineers and the legendary Prussian officer Baron von Steuben, the allied army completes its first parallel and has artillery in place by 9 October. The bombardment of the British defences commences.

06. Assault on redoubts Nine and Ten
Cornwallis anticipated this sector would be chosen for the assault on Yorktown and had placed two redoubts in advance of his inner line for added protection, but both fall in a single night to determined attacks from French and American troops. The capture of the redoubts allows Washington to complete his second parallel.

07. The last resistance
A futile and largely symbolic sortie is led by Lieutenant Colonel Robert Abercrombie on the morning of 16 October. Light infantry and grenadiers under his command manage to spike several French guns, but they are back in action within hours.

08. The escape attempt
During the night of 16 October, Cornwallis attempts to evacuate his army in 16 vessels. Three trips are needed, but only one is completed before bad weather intervenes and the escape is called off. The following morning Cornwallis surrenders.

Map: Rocio Espin

attackers falling at Breed's Hill. The pyrrhic victory was an example of British incompetence on the field of battle during the war with reports of artillery units using incorrect ammunition. The victory didn't break the Siege of Boston and within a year the British had sailed back out of the city as patriot forces swept in to what was once one of the most-important British ports on the American continent.

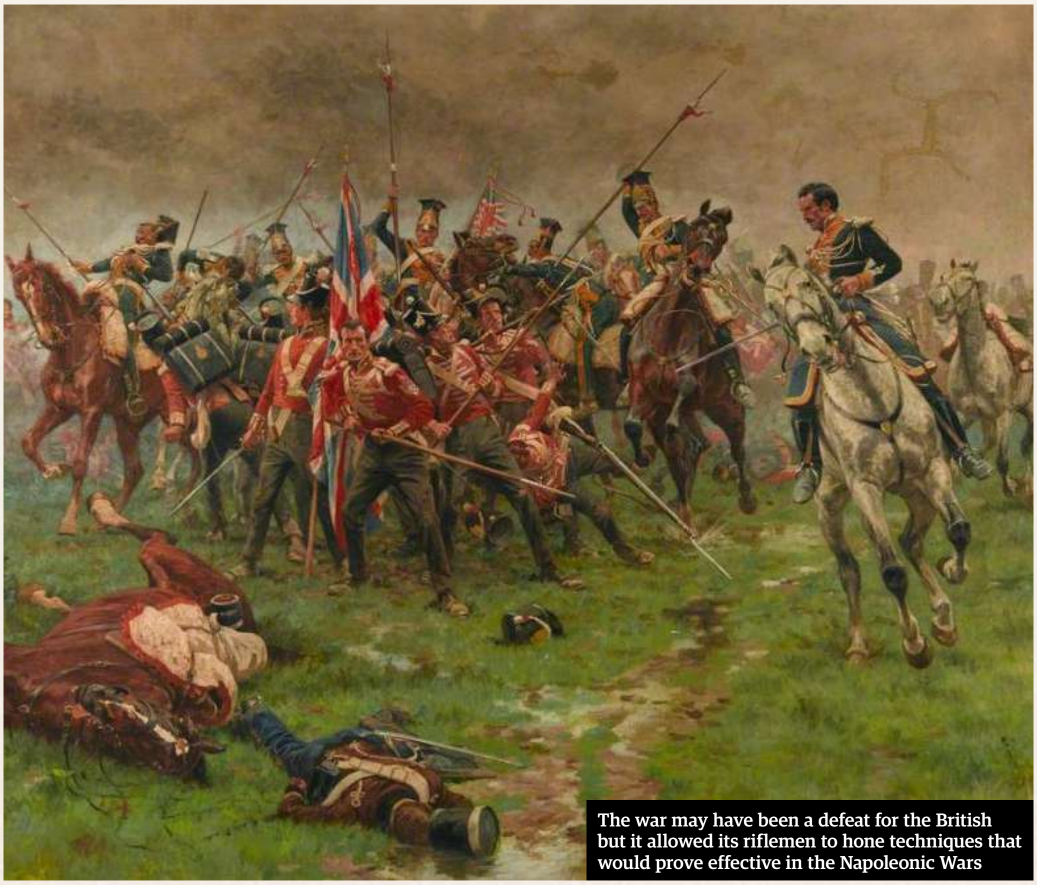
The American Revolutionary War wasn't simply a battle between the British and the Americans. The British ranks were swelled by Hessians – mercenaries recruited from central Europe – while the patriots would later call on the assistance of the French, Spanish and Dutch. The role of African Americans in the conflict is not well documented, but in 1775 slaves in Virginia were actively encouraged to take up arms by the British who knew that the more slaves who were in their army, the less there would be to serve in the economy of the southern colonies. On the patriot's side, Freiherr von Steuben, a Prussian who had previously fought for France, joined the cause at the midpoint of the war to instil a tactical nous and mental steel into the rookie Continental Army – a training system and mentality the British dearly lacked.

The Continental Army made a bold move in November 1775 when troops crossed the border to Canada and invaded Montreal. The march northwards ended at the gates of Quebec after a siege on the city by the combined forces of General Richard Montgomery and Arnold was repelled.

Many soldiers perished to enemy gunfire, capture and disease, including Montgomery himself. Now on the back foot, the patriots were tracked by British reinforcements and forced to retreat to Ticonderoga. They were handed a brief respite thanks to Arnold's fleet, but this rapidly assembled task force was later crushed by General Guy Carleton at the Battle of Valcour Island. Despite the defeat, the Continental Army had done enough to stall redcoat progress. George III's men weren't used to the cold of the winter and the humidity of the summer, and found it difficult to utilise their supremacy as a fighting force in the small, scattered and sparse American settlements. This decreased the efficiency of the British supply train considerably.

Undeterred, a fleet containing 34,000 new British soldiers led by General Howe docked in New York. Turning their attention southwards, the refreshed British Army took New York City on 15 September 1776. A new strategy focused on taking control of the Hudson River, and three British armies marched in unison to Albany taking both Fort Washington and Fort Lee – the Continental Army was forced to retreat.

After Christmas, the pendulum swung as the patriots won a famous victory at Trenton. More than 2,000 soldiers crossed the frozen Delaware River, taking a British camp by surprise and claiming 1,000 Hessian prisoners before escaping. Not content with this successful hit and run, the Continental Army engaged and defeated the British at Princeton, lifting the morale of those allied to



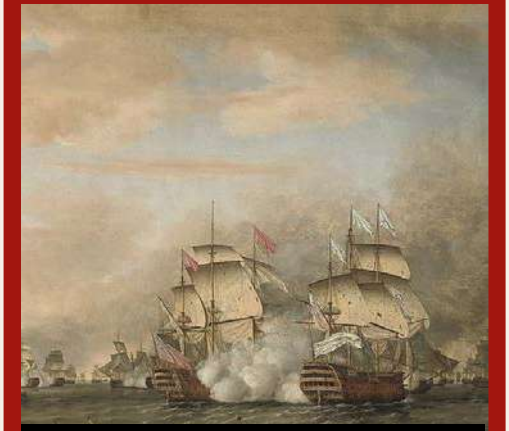
The war may have been a defeat for the British but it allowed its riflemen to hone techniques that would prove effective in the Napoleonic Wars

French involvement in the war

When the 'shot heard around the world' rang out, France was still reeling from its defeat in the Seven Years' War where Canada and all its North American lands had been lost to Britain. Just a year later, France was secretly funding the patriot war effort and by 1778 King Louis XVI had declared a formal alliance with the new United States of America. After the Battles of Saratoga, men and ships were sent across the Atlantic, as well as just money and munitions.

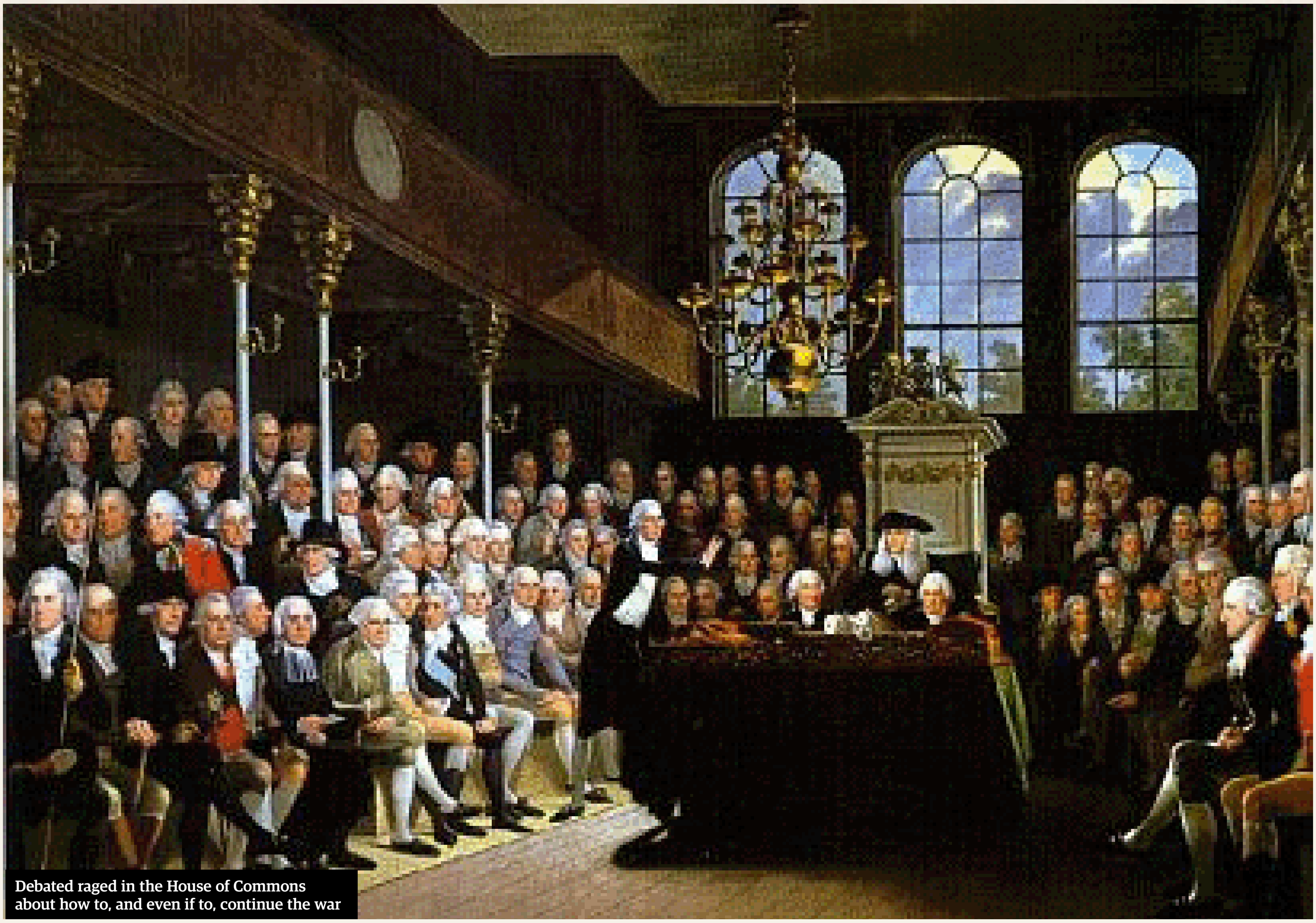
The French Navy was present in battles in Rhode Island, New York and Chesapeake Bay, and the catastrophic British defeat at Yorktown was caused by a combined French and American force. French vessels also provoked the Royal Navy with skirmishes in the English Channel.

Although France was the USA's ally, it was sidelined from the negotiating table. A treaty agreed by the British and the Americans in November 1782 secured trade agreements, and France failed to regain any lands in North America or the Caribbean. Even Spain was given Florida. More than 40,000 troops and mariners were sent over the Atlantic by France. Although they undoubtedly contributed to the American victory, it did very little to improve matters in France as the country went down its own path to revolution.



The Royal Navy dealt a crippling blow to the French in the Battle of the Saintes in 1782

> "By 1778 King Louis XVI had declared a formal alliance with the new United States of America"



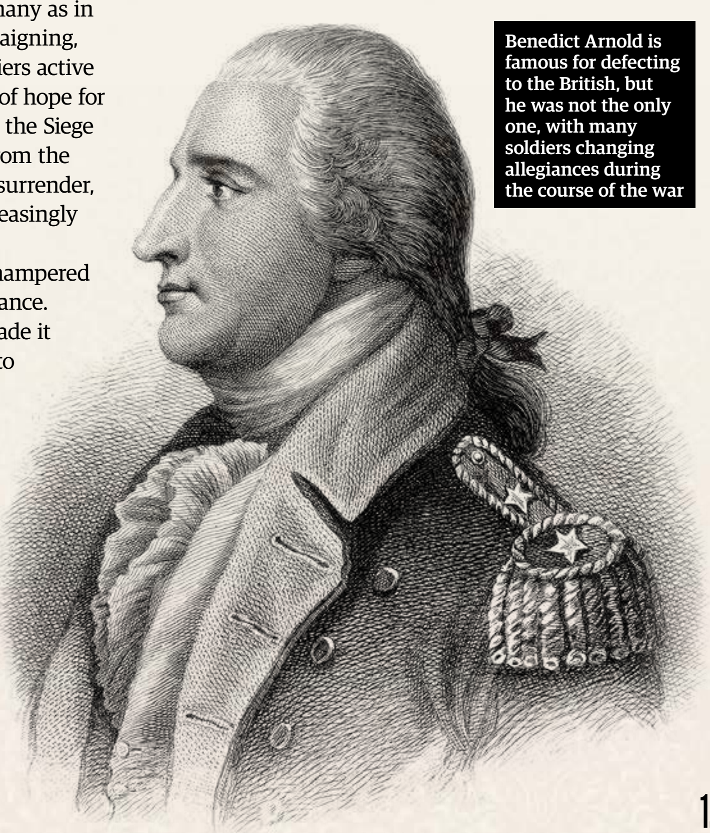
Debated raged in the House of Commons about how to, and even if to, continue the war

the patriot cause considerably and reminding the redcoats that the war was far from over . Back home, support for the war had frequently ebbed and flowed with the opposition Whig Party against hostilities from the start.

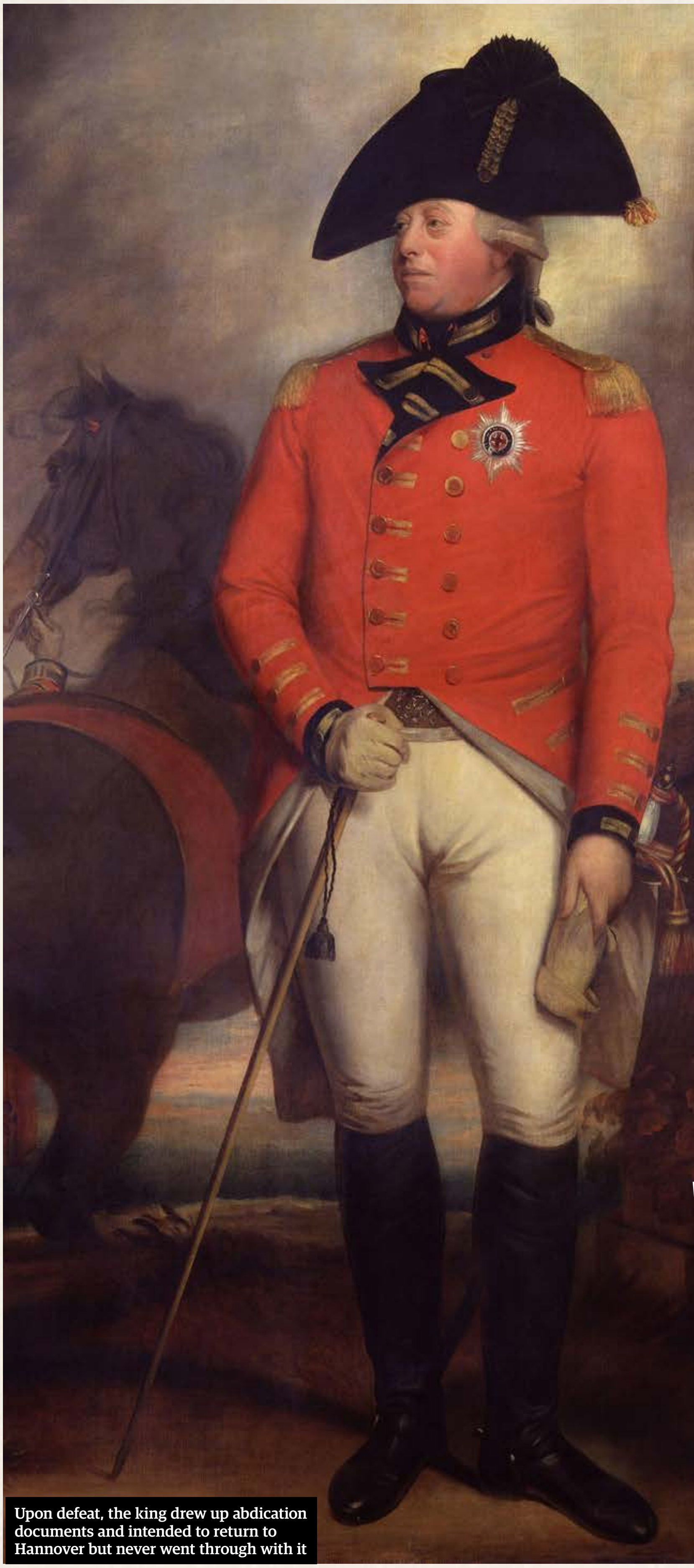
Early the next year, the British began a new campaign that attempted to isolate the epicentre of the initial uprising, New England. The northward pincer of the attack was led by Major General Burgoyne who swept southwards defeating opposing militia as he went. The campaign to reclaim the southern colonies was orchestrated by Lord Cornwallis and concentrated on North and South Carolina, Virginia and Georgia. The tactic was very successful at first with recently appointed Secretary of State for the Colonies, Lord George Germain, confidently stating that the recent slew of victories would result in the "speedy and happy termination of the American war". It would be anything but.

With Burgoyne's supply chain from Canada lengthening with every advance, his resource-deprived men were defeated at the Battle of Saratoga in October 1777. This battle is widely - although not universally - regarded as a major turning point in the war. Almost 6,000 men surrendered, nearly six times as many as in the previous five months of campaigning, and one quarter of all British soldiers active in the conflict that year. A flicker of hope for those allied to the Crown came at the Siege of Charleston where 5,000 men from the Continental Army were forced to surrender, but victories like this were in increasingly short supply.

Down south, guerrilla warfare hampered the momentum of the British advance. The boggy and forested terrain made it easy for platoons and companies to be ambushed and reduced their capacity to make decisive gains, which lowered morale of the troops and support at home. The worst came at the Battle of King's Mountain in October 1780 where a 1,000-strong force was beaten by the patriots. More men poured south the following year but to no avail as the campaign came to a shuddering halt, the British Army constantly unable to



Benedict Arnold is famous for defecting to the British, but he was not the only one, with many soldiers changing allegiances during the course of the war



Upon defeat, the king drew up abdication documents and intended to return to Hannover but never went through with it

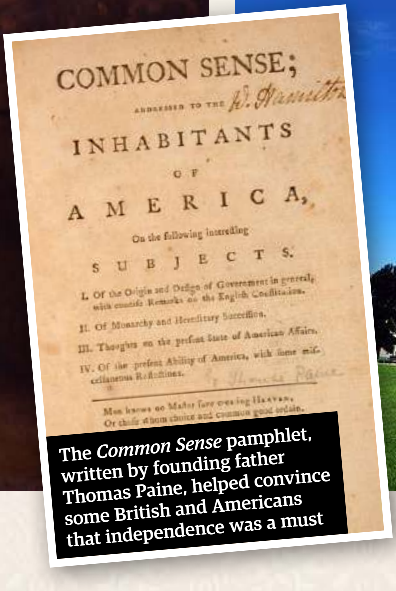
ever fully defeat its patriot adversaries. In a trio of shattering defeats, Cornwallis lost nearly half of his troops. The introduction of more and more soldiers wasn't a sustainable or an effective strategy, so the British rolled the dice and moved to Virginia.

Spain, France and the Netherlands had all entered the fray by 1780, allied to the patriot cause, and the British situation looked bleak. The death blow came at the Battle of Yorktown on 19 October 1781 where more than 8,000 soldiers, led by Cornwallis, laid down their arms. Upon the news of the surrender, Lord North is believed to have exclaimed, "Oh God! It is all over".

Parliament met in London to decide if the war could be continued. The king was one of the major advocates, but his voice was fast becoming isolated. In February 1782, the verdict was to discontinue the war effort, but this was not made official until the ink had dried on the Treaty of Paris, which was signed on 3 September 1783. The last troop vessel left New York two months later, leaving behind a new internationally recognised and independent United States of America, free of British rule. It is estimated that more than 100,000 colonists who were loyal to the Crown fled the Americas, clambering on any ship they could. Returning to Britain, the battered troops and defeated generals were greeted with a cold shoulder in a country facing political change and potential economic ruin. Lord North had resigned in March 1782, his loss of the Thirteen Colonies an unwanted lasting legacy. After three short-lived Whig governments, parliament was stabilised by incoming Tory, William Pitt the Younger.

Britain had held the upper hand at various points during the war, but the inability to completely crush the Continental Army's guerrilla skirmishes proved to be its undoing. Unable to fully defeat the enemy, Britain could not match

An obelisk and a statue of Prescott now stand on Bunker Hill, an eternal memorial to a lost battle but a signal of hope for the patriots



COMMON SENSE;

ADDRESSED TO THE W. Hamilt

INHABITANTS

OF

AMERICA,

On the following intereſting

SUBJECTS.

I. Of the Origin and Deſign of Government in general, with conciſe Remarks on the Engliſh Conſtitution.

II. Of Monarchy and Hereditary Succeſſion.

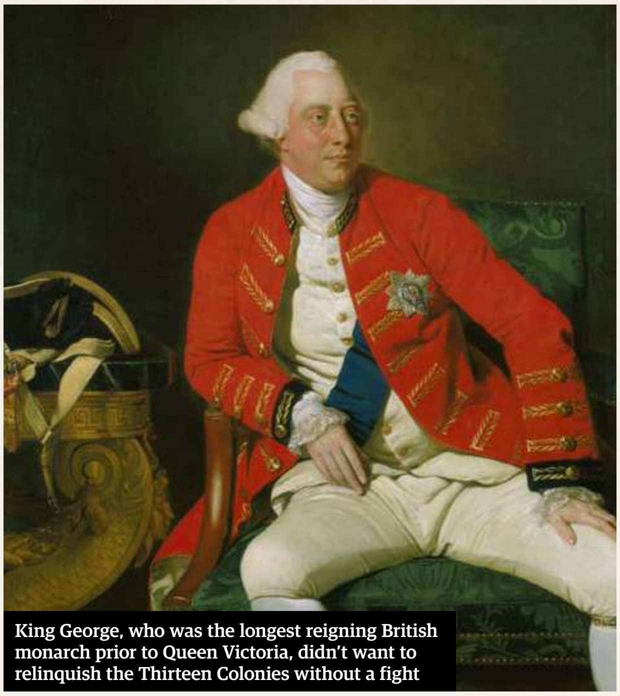
III. Thoughts on the preſent State of American Affairs.

IV. Of the preſent Ability of America, with ſome miſcellaneous Reflections.

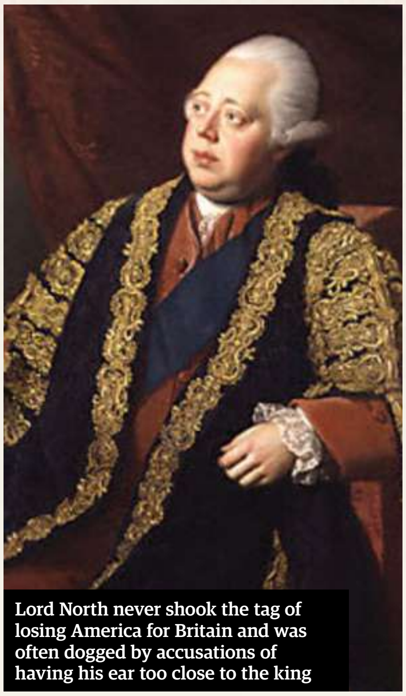
Thomas Paine

Man knows no Maſter ſave creating Heaven,
Or thoſe whom choice and common good ordain.

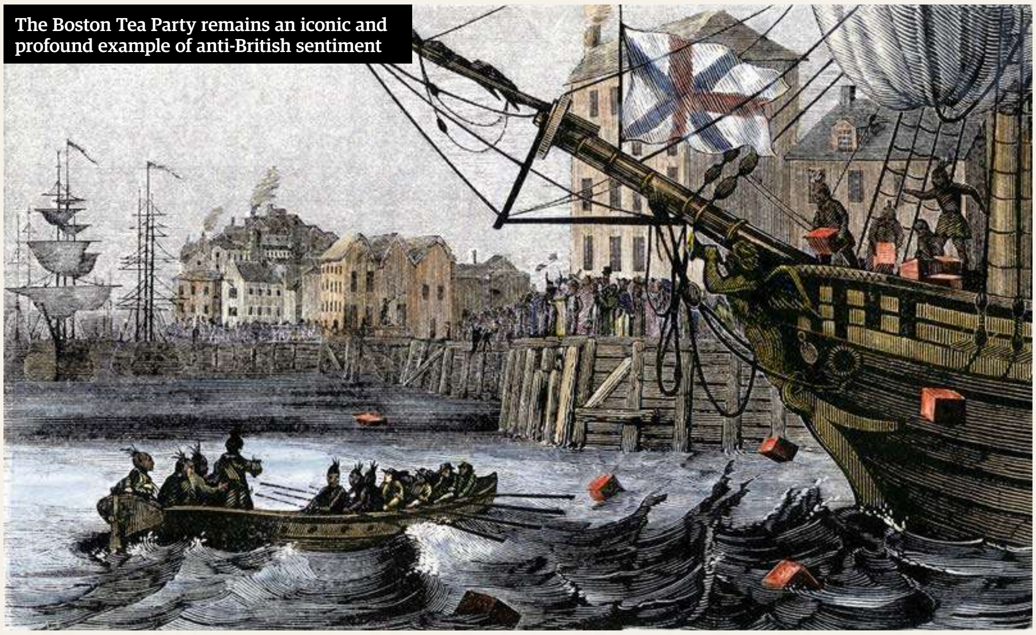
The *Common Sense* pamphlet, written by founding father Thomas Paine, helped convince some British and Americans that independence was a must



King George, who was the longest reigning British monarch prior to Queen Victoria, didn't want to relinquish the Thirteen Colonies without a fight



Lord North never shook the tag of losing America for Britain and was often dogged by accusations of having his ear too close to the king



The Boston Tea Party remains an iconic and profound example of anti-British sentiment

the Americans' longevity, and the further they advanced inland the longer the supply chains became. Washington and his allies simply had to stay in the war for as long as they could and avoid large open battles as often as possible to wear down the enemy and emerge victorious. Once other nations entered the war, Britain was cautious to avoid the full wrath of major European powers like France and Spain, further fuelling the desire to wave the white flag and avert another major war. Some regiments were even diverted back to Britain, and other parts of the empire, in case of a possible invasion.

Defeat in the New World changed Britain. The loss against a new nation that wasn't considered a major player on the world stage was an embarrassment, and many now felt that winning the war was always a futile endeavour. Despite this, the economy soon stabilised, with the USA fast-becoming an important trade partner to the empire. The outcome of the war, and the number of nations who joined the patriotic cause, also gave Britain a growing sense of isolationism against the other major powers and a renewed sense of pride against the odds, nullifying any chance of an uprising like the one in France later in the decade.

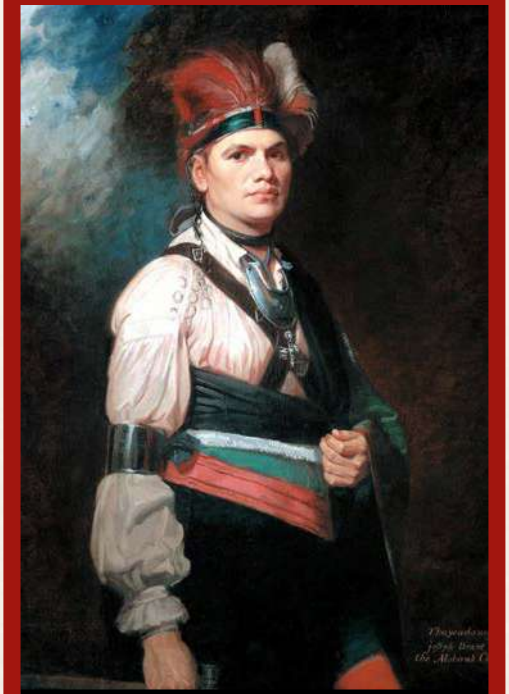
Britain's imperial aspirations changed as the empire took on a new model of capitalist rather than colonial conquest as it continued to grow across the world. Attention soon turned to Australia as a new location to house convicts. Britain would return to US shores in the war of 1812, but not before it had licked its wounds.

Did Native Americans have a say in the conflict?

Different Native American tribes fought on both sides of the conflict, while others remained neutral and stayed out of the war. Some natives were encouraged to side with the British after a Royal Proclamation signed in 1763 by George III agreed to end any colonial advances beyond the Appalachian Mountains.

The Cherokee was one of the main nations involved in the war and often embarked on skirmishes in Virginia and North and South Carolina. Some such as the Iroquois had split loyalties that divided its confederacy, but the primary motivation for all tribes was to protect their lands. There was a fear that a patriot victory would result in a spread of colonists westwards and the Declaration of Independence, signed after the war, described Native Americans who fought for the British as 'merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction, of all ages, sexes and conditions'.

In the main, Native Americans attacked both British and American settlements and volunteered for the armies on both sides. Many served in Boston, New York and Canada for the patriot cause, for instance. In the Treaty of Paris, there was no Native American representation and they were left to fight against the growing expansion westwards, but it would ultimately be a losing battle. The 1795 Treaty of Greenville was signed after a confederacy of Native American tribes lost to the US Army in Ohio allowing settlers to flood even further west.



Thayendanegea, also known as Joseph Brant, was the leader of a Mohawk tribe in the Iroquois Confederacy that allied with the British and led raids in New York and Pennsylvania

© Alamy, Wiki

NELSON & THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

For Britain, Trafalgar was the last hope against a French invasion, but for Nelson, it was the final battle against a far more fearsome foe

Written by Frances White

Just before noon on 21 October 1805, Admiral Viscount Horatio Nelson stood aboard the deck of his flagship HMS Victory. A light westerly wind whistled through the air, and in the distance he could see the frigates of the Franco-Spanish fleet. For weeks he had bided his time, patiently waiting, reviewing tactics and planning every action down to the finest detail. Now, finally the hour had come, and he signalled for his fleet to begin the attack. In less than five hours, he would experience a victory that would define his life, and a loss that would end it.

Today Nelson is remembered as one of Britain's greatest heroes – a warrior, a commander and a victor. However, when he entered this world on 29 September 1758, the sixth of 11 children, he was a sickly baby. His parents were so fearful that he would not survive that they had him baptised early. This occurrence would begin a lifelong tradition of battling and succeeding against the odds.

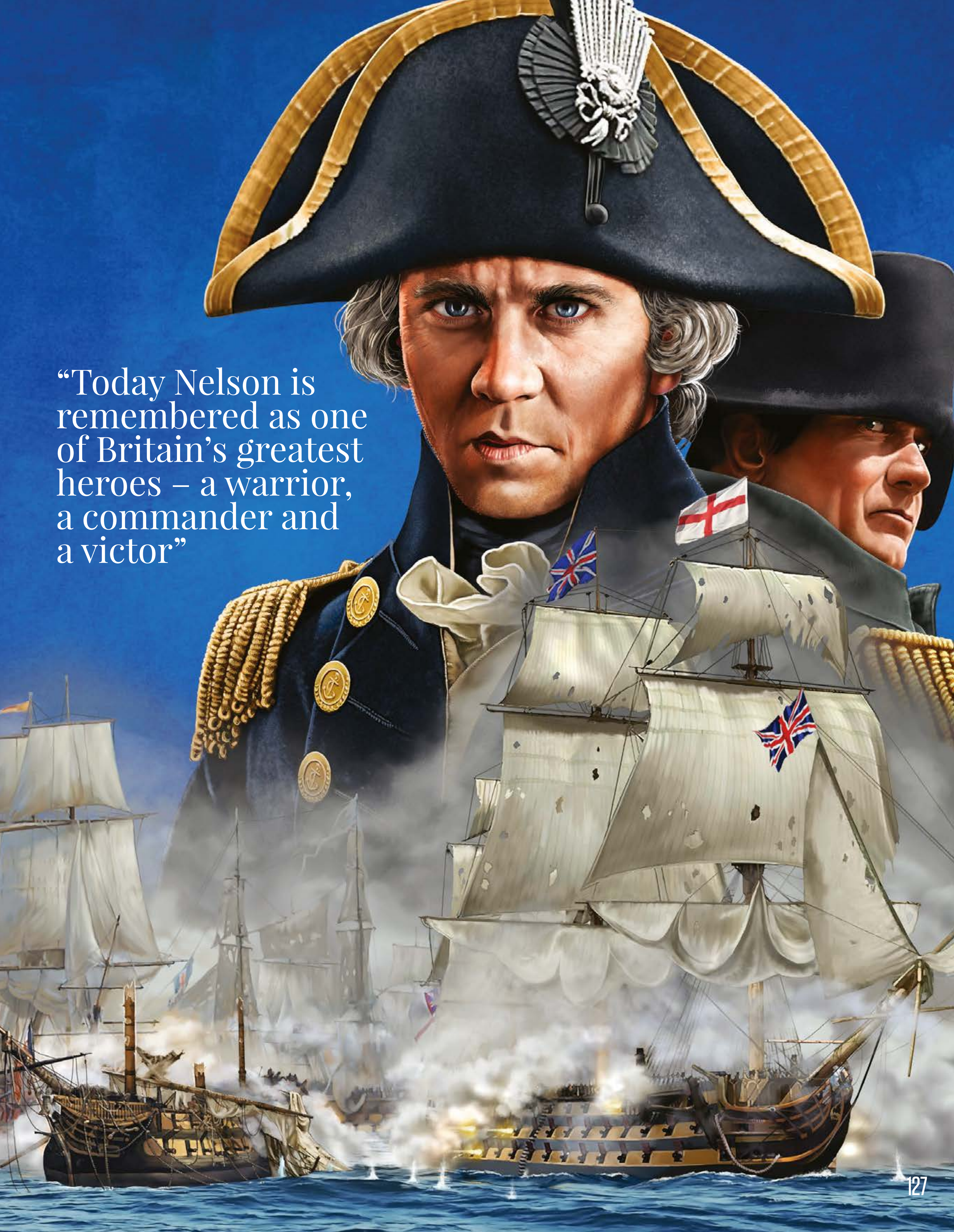
Despite losing his right eye during a campaign in Corsica, Nelson never wore an eye patch

The Nelson family were not unknown, but they certainly weren't particularly wealthy and they had to exploit their connections to ensure a steady future for their children. Nelson's mother, Catherine Suckling, was a distant relative of Robert Walpole, first prime minister of Great Britain. However, tragically, Nelson's mother died when the boy was just nine. It was to be his maternal uncle who would have the biggest influence on his life, as aged just 12, Nelson began his naval career serving under his uncle, Captain Maurice Suckling, on the HMS Raisonnable.

When Nelson joined the navy, it was in the lowest ranks. However, perhaps the result of being a sixth child in a large family, he sought glory above all else. This quest to make a name for himself and achieve renown fuelled a work ethic that soon impressed his superiors and saw him ascend through the ranks at a rapid rate. This was particularly impressive for a boy who suffered from extreme sea-sickness.

After crossing the Atlantic several times, Nelson, eager to experience as much as possible, obtained a position on HMS Carcass. The ship was set on an expedition across the Arctic to find the fabled northwest passage to India. This was a very perilous mission, and was ultimately unsuccessful, with the ship forced to turn back. However, along the way, an eager 15-year-old Nelson decided to pursue a polar bear across the ice. Young, intrepid and fearless, thanks to a sudden crack in the ice separating the beast from Nelson, the headstrong boy was granted another last minute escape from likely death.

The eager young sailor saw his first action when he was stationed aboard Seahorse in the East Indies. It was only a brief exchange of volleys, but Nelson was gaining experience and watching carefully. He was a fast learner and had a quick



“Today Nelson is remembered as one of Britain’s greatest heroes – a warrior, a commander and a victor”

Life in Nelson's Navy

Serving under Nelson, many 19th-century sailors faced graver dangers than the enemy

Work & warfare

Sailors usually started their careers as boys, but during wartime the navy needed an additional 60,000 men for the fleet, and this could include those who had never gone to sea. The skilled work was carried out by about 20 per cent of the crew, while the rest dealt with heavy hauling.

Food & drink

Food on board was of varying quality, and the meat was salted and placed in barrels for preservation. Although much of the food was bland and dry, sailors received regular meals. They were entitled to a gallon of beer each day and drunkenness on board was a big problem in the navy.

Discipline & punishment

Discipline on board ships was harsh, but it was equally harsh on land. The rules on a ship, known as the Articles of War, declared that men could be hung for mutiny, treason, desertion or sodomy. Lesser forms of punishment were starting, running the gauntlet and flogging.

Health & hygiene

With men living in such cramped, damp conditions, disease was rampant, with 50 per cent of all Royal Navy deaths in 1810 attributed to it. Surgery was far from advanced, with amputations used for any injured limbs, and there are accounts of tubs filled with severed body parts during battles.

Pay & benefits

Poverty forced many men to sea, and on top of their annual salary, the riches gained from capture of an enemy vessel were divided among the men based on rank. Captains enjoyed three-eighths of the reward, however, Nelson often complained about his lack of prize money as he was posted away from bountiful areas.

mind for naval tactics, so when a case of malaria caused him to be discharged, it affected him badly. While recovering, Nelson faced another battle, but this time with depression. For someone so determined to make a name for themselves, coming so close to a death of relative obscurity was a difficult pill to swallow. However, his proud, optimistic spirit won through, and fuelled by patriotism and a renewed sense of determination, Nelson passed the lieutenant exam and set sail again, this time into the perilous heart of the American War of Independence.

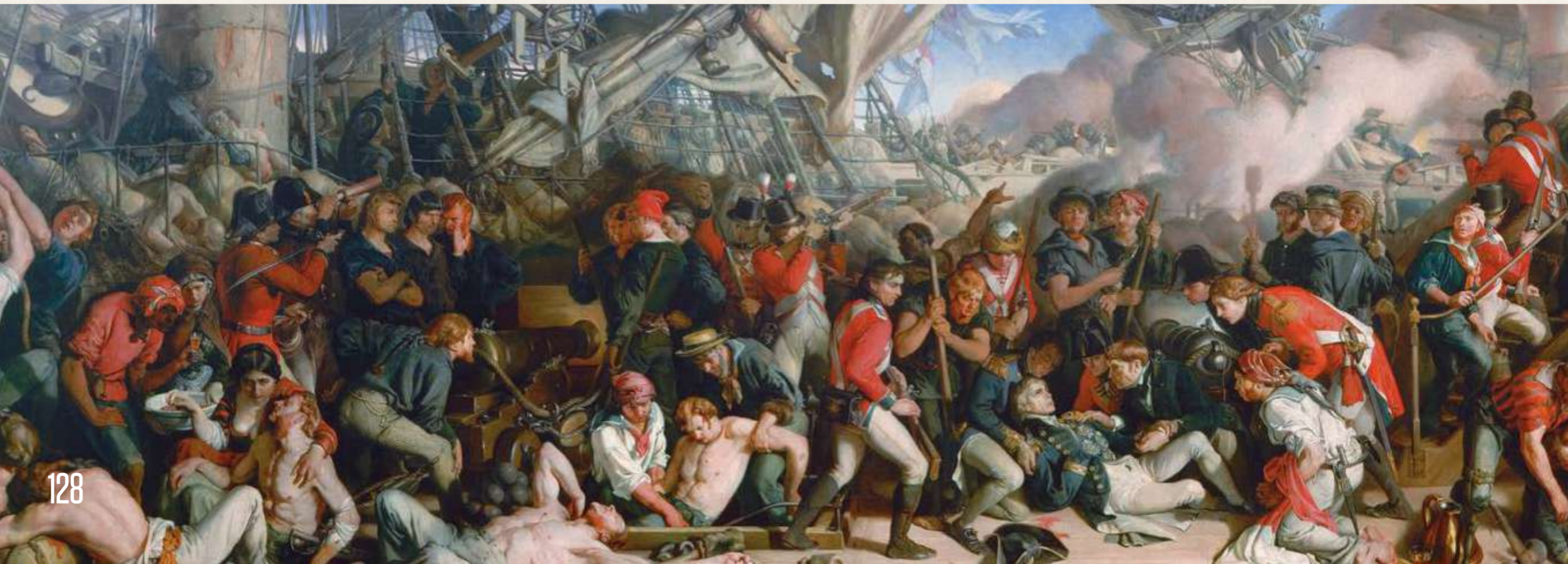
Aged just 20, Nelson was given command of a frigate and experienced his first taste of command, attacking Spanish settlements in Nicaragua. The operation was a success, and Nelson was commended for his quick thinking and valiant actions. However, this success did not last, as almost the entire British force was struck down with yellow fever. Nelson himself barely recovered with his life, and when he returned to sea in 1784, it was not to a life of daring battles and valiant successes. Instead Nelson's role was to enforce the Navigation Act. He made many enemies, and the loneliness of command saw him sink back into despair and depression. When he returned home, he found himself unpopular with his kinsmen, without any appointment, and unemployed for five long years.

Nelson was battered and bruised, but he was not defeated. His marriage to the widow Frances Nisbet, who had a five-year-old son, revitalised a man who was already far older than his 29 years. Meanwhile, overseas, events were happening that would affect the path his life would take forever. The people of France were rebelling, the king had been killed, the world was watching and finally, Nelson was given a ship: the 64-gun Agamemnon.

At last things in Nelson's life were looking up – he had a loving wife at home, a fast powerful ship under his command, and an able crew who listened and followed his orders. This dynamic life suited Nelson, and in it he began to flourish. The enthusiastic young man was still there, but another side was emerging, a capable commander and flashes of genius. It was during this period, while defending the port of Toulon, that Nelson first crossed swords with a 24-year-old French Artillery officer by the name of Napoleon Bonaparte.

It was during this period of revolution, unrest and war that Nelson achieved some of his lesser known but equally notable victories against the Spanish at Cape Vincent in 1797 and at the Battle of Copenhagen. The bold commander was beginning to carve a name for himself. His men adored him because not only was he extremely capable, but he was also daring – a trait that cost him the sight in his right eye. In the British Navy he was something of a rebel, ignoring orders to withdraw. In one instance during the Battle of Copenhagen, he lifted his telescope to his blind eye, pretending not to see the command to withdraw. Nelson's force of will and bullish British spirit won him victory after victory, and although he was admired greatly as a leader, a remnant of the young man seeking affirmation and glory remained. Depression and self doubt were demons that Nelson was doomed to fight until his final day, foes that all his naval victories and commendations could not vanquish.

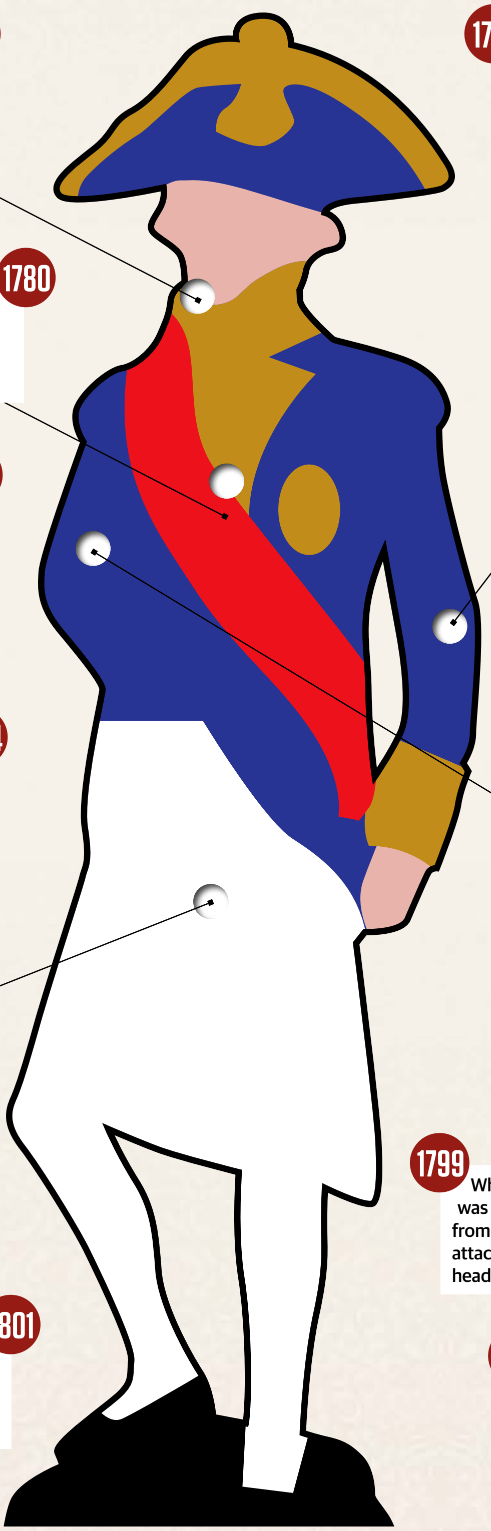
> "Nelson had never desired a long, comfortable life, he was a master of the seas and a seeker of adventure"



Nelson's easily recognisable medals made him a high-value target for French sharpshooters at Trafalgar

Nelson's illnesses and injuries

Nelson's tendency to put himself in the heart of battle led to him suffering an abundance of ailments throughout his seafaring career



1771 When Nelson's naval career began, so did his ongoing battle with a sailor's worst nightmare – chronic seasickness. Nelson suffered with the ailment for the rest of his life.

1776 Nelson suffered his first bout of what would be a reoccurring sickness – malaria. This first attack almost took his life, but also gave him a vision of a voice telling him that he would become a hero.

1780 In San Juan, Nelson suffered from a cornucopia of ailments – dysentery, yellow fever, chest pain and even poisoning from a toxic fruit.

1781 While in London, Nelson complained that his left arm and leg were causing him distress. The fingers on his left hand were also white, numb and swollen.

1782 Like many sailors at the time, Nelson and his crew suffered from scurvy, and this would become a repetitive sickness that the admiral would later work to eliminate on his ships.

1787 Upon returning from the West Indies, Nelson was struck down with a fever so severe that a keg of rum was prepared to preserve his body if he were to pass away.

1794 In Bastia, Nelson was almost killed by a huge amount of dirt from a heavy shot falling on him. Days later, he was hit by earth and rocks from an explosion and was blinded in his right eye.

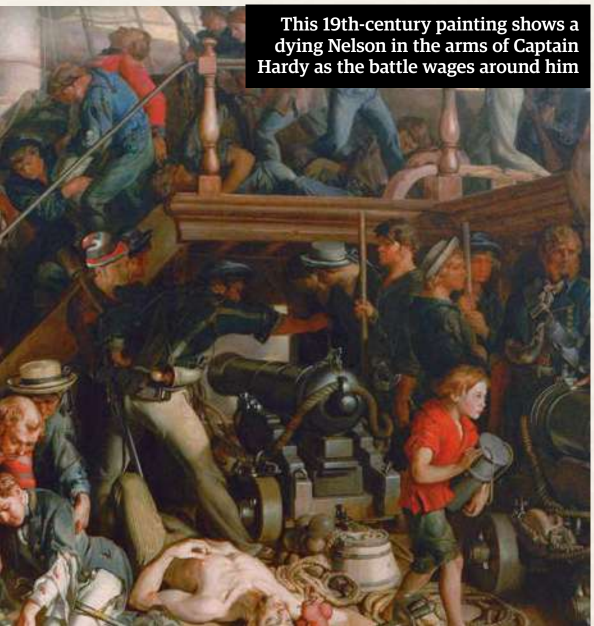
1797 In the midst of battle, Nelson received a musket ball shot above his right elbow. It was declared that he was killed, but the ship's surgeon amputated his forearm. Half an hour later, he returned to battle.

1798 Nelson was hit with a fragment of shot during battle. Again he declared himself dead, but continued on commanding the battle while bleeding profusely. Nelson suffered with blinding headaches for the remainder of his life.

1799 While in Palermo, Sicily, Nelson was reported to be suffering from what he believed to be heart attacks, accompanied by depression, headaches, sickness and indigestion.

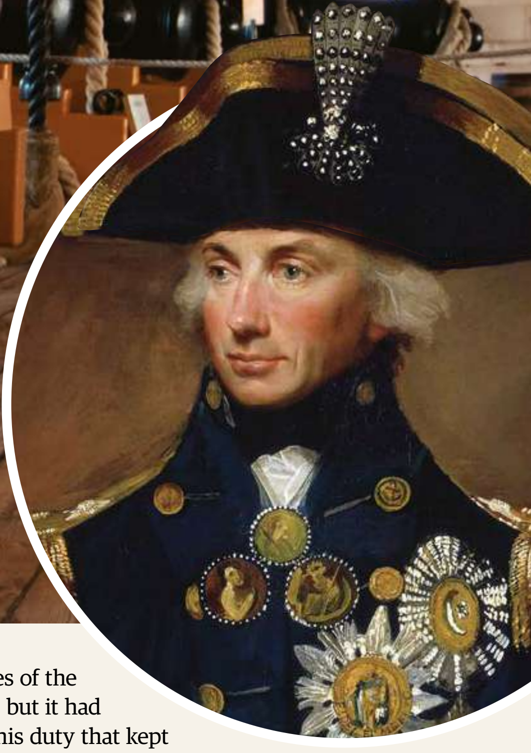
1801 Again Nelson proclaimed his death was close when he suffered from severe heatstroke and vomiting, but he recovered remarkably quickly.

1805 During the Battle of Trafalgar, Nelson was struck in the shoulder and spine. Once more he stated: "I have but a short time to live." This time he was correct.



This 19th-century painting shows a dying Nelson in the arms of Captain Hardy as the battle wages around him

Today HMS Victory is on display at the Portsmouth Historic Dockyard



Although a peace treaty had been signed with France in 1802, just a year later war broke out once again. Nelson was appointed commander-in-chief of the Mediterranean fleet and hoisted his flag on the ship that would be forever linked with his name, HMS Victory. His mission was to blockade Toulon to prevent French ships there meeting up with those in the Atlantic and also Spanish ships in Cadiz and Cartagena. Britain was well aware that the prize Napoleon desired most of all was invasion of their own country, and its ultimate destruction. With the combined force of these ships, that invasion was a very real possibility. If united, this single invincible fleet could take control of the Channel, enabling the French emperor to ravage Britain and leave it in tatters. It was up to Nelson and his men to stop that happening.

The French Admiral Pierre Villeneuve was a man under a lot of pressure. It was under his command that the combined fleet was to sail, and it was up to him to ensure that happened. Although Nelson and his fleet lurked nearby, Villeneuve managed to sneak out of Toulon under cover of bad weather. Upon realising the admiral had moved, Nelson set off in pursuit. The French reunited with some of their ships, but they failed to take control of the Channel so fled south to Cadiz with their fleet.

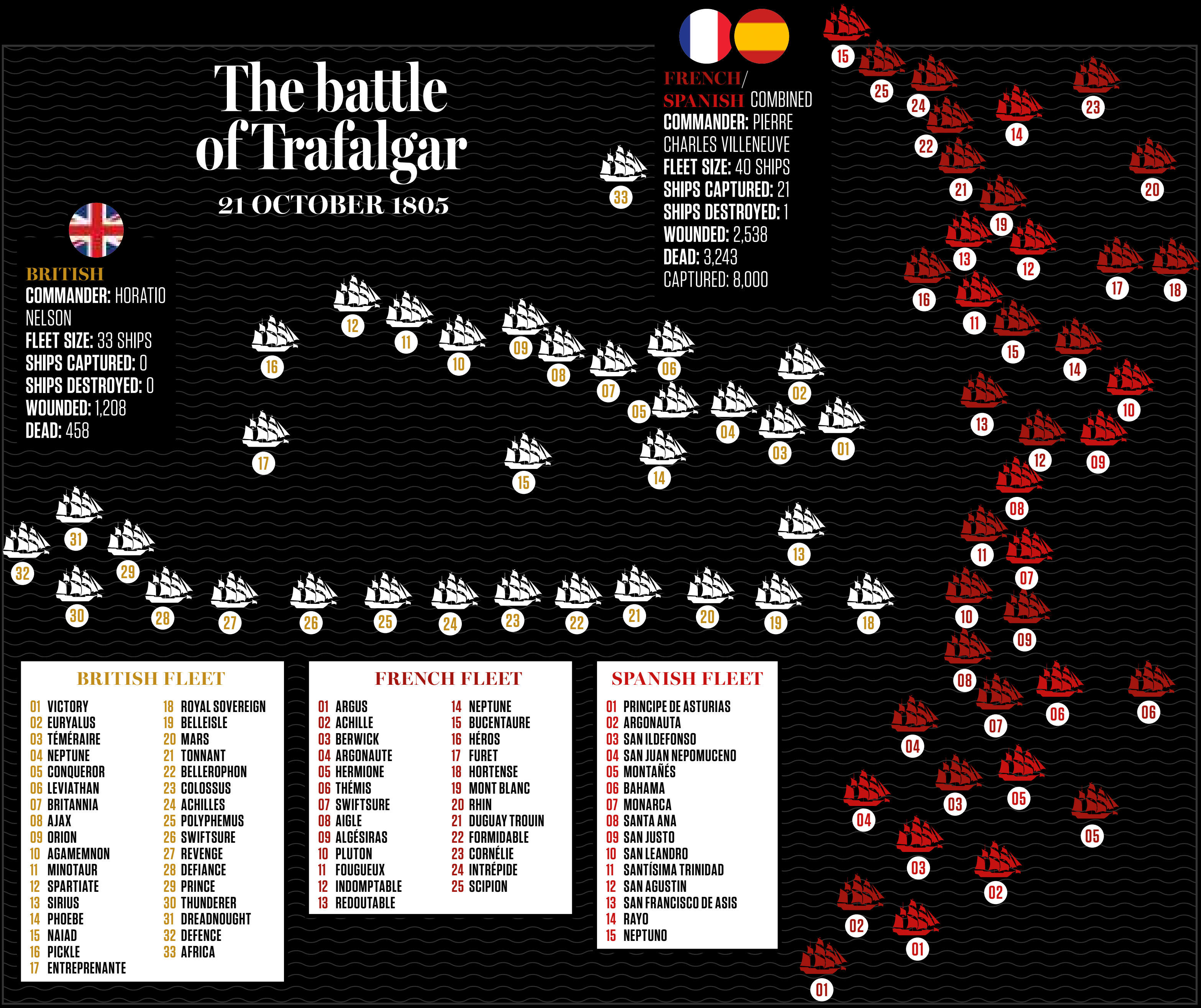
Napoleon was not pleased with Villeneuve's delay and already had plans to replace him. It was a final accusation of cowardice that forced Villeneuve to leave the harbour, and as far as he knew, there was no British force nearby that could hope to best him. Unfortunately for Villeneuve, he was wrong.

When Villeneuve first made for Cadiz, Nelson had returned home, and for 25 days he had perfected his strategy. Napoleon had refocused his efforts on his Grande Armée in Austria, but in England, invasion by sea still seemed a very real possibility, and Nelson was the hero who could prevent it. On 15 September 1805, Nelson set sail on Victory again, and was very careful to keep his main fleet well out to sea. Villeneuve had no idea that what he was running into was a strategy designed to stop him for good, and a man who still had something to prove.

As the silhouettes of the combined fleet appeared against the sunrise over Cape Trafalgar, the British finally began to move. They split into two divisions, one led by Nelson and the other by Collingwood. On board Victory, Nelson ordered his lieutenant to carry a message to the fleet: "England expects that every man will do his duty." Nelson was many things – curious, energetic, even reckless. His adventurous spirit and quest for personal pride had led him to travel to the furthest reaches of the world, but it had been his duty that kept him there. It was this sense of duty in the face of fear and danger that Nelson instilled in his men that day.

The men had every right to be afraid. Naval tactics at the time meant that almost every battle followed a set sequence – the ships would line up against each other and attack from the broadside cannons. This strategy was such an integral part of naval warfare at the time that it had inspired the name 'ship of the line' for the vessels that took part in it. But Nelson had other plans. He would deviate from the norm, and instead of facing down the line of Villeneuve's fleet in the ordinary fashion, he would attack them from the west, at right angles, in two squadrons. This put Nelson and his men at immense risk, as they were exposed to the fleet's powerful and devastating broadside cannons, but if they could cut their way through, they could slice the fleet in three and destroy it.

The British aligned themselves into two long lines, and like two arrows fired forward. They stormed towards the combined fleet, led by the flagships. The Franco-Spanish fleet were not expecting or prepared for such a tactic. The French ship Fougueux let off a broadside towards



The battle of Trafalgar

21 OCTOBER 1805

BRITISH
COMMANDER: HORATIO NELSON
FLEET SIZE: 33 SHIPS
SHIPS CAPTURED: 0
SHIPS DESTROYED: 0
WOUNDED: 1,208
DEAD: 458

FRENCH/ SPANISH COMBINED
COMMANDER: PIERRE CHARLES VILLENEUVE
FLEET SIZE: 40 SHIPS
SHIPS CAPTURED: 21
SHIPS DESTROYED: 1
WOUNDED: 2,538
DEAD: 3,243
CAPTURED: 8,000

BRITISH FLEET

01	VICTORY	18	ROYAL SOVEREIGN
02	EURYALUS	19	BELLEISLE
03	TÉMÉRAIRE	20	MARS
04	NEPTUNE	21	TONNANT
05	CONQUEROR	22	BELLEROPHON
06	LEVIATHAN	23	COLOSSUS
07	BRITANNIA	24	ACHILLES
08	AJAX	25	POLYPHEMUS
09	ORION	26	SWIFTSURE
10	AGAMEMNON	27	REVENGE
11	MINOTAUR	28	DEFIANCE
12	SPARTIATE	29	PRINCE
13	SIRIUS	30	THUNDERER
14	PHOEBE	31	DREADNOUGHT
15	NAIAD	32	DEFENCE
16	PICKLE	33	AFRICA
17	ENTREPRENANTE		

FRENCH FLEET

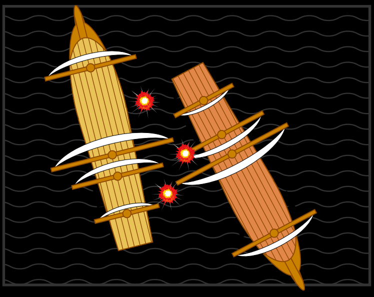
01	ARGUS	14	NEPTUNE
02	ACHILLE	15	BUCENTAURE
03	BERWICK	16	HÉROS
04	ARGONAUTE	17	FURET
05	HERMIONE	18	HORTENSE
06	THÉMIS	19	MONT BLANC
07	SWIFTSURE	20	RHIN
08	AIGLE	21	DUGUAY TROUIN
09	ALGÉSIRAS	22	FORMIDABLE
10	PLUTON	23	CORNÉLIE
11	FOUGUEUX	24	INTRÉPIDE
12	INDOMPTABLE	25	SCIPION
13	REDOUTABLE		

SPANISH FLEET

01	PRINCIPE DE ASTURIAS
02	ARGONAUTA
03	SAN ILDEFONSO
04	SAN JUAN NEPOMUCENO
05	MONTAÑÉS
06	BAHAMA
07	MONARCA
08	SANTA ANA
09	SAN JUSTO
10	SAN LEANDRO
11	SANTÍSIMA TRINIDAD
12	SAN AGUSTIN
13	SAN FRANCISCO DE ASIS
14	RAYO
15	NEPTUNO

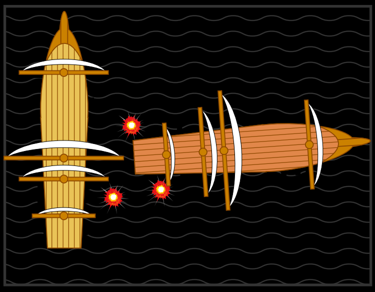
Nelson's Tactics

Battle at sea usually followed defined tactics, but Nelson deviated, risked everything and claimed the most decisive victory of the war



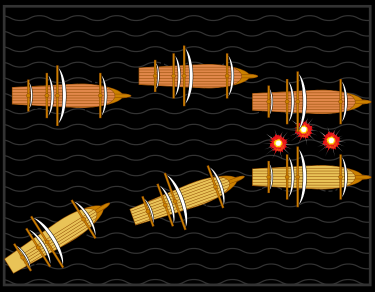
Broadside

Because it was near impossible for ships to fire over the bow or stern, all the guns were positioned along the side of the ship. Because of this, it was the captain's aim to face the side of their ships against the enemy's side and then unleash the cannons in an attack. This technique was known as a broadside.



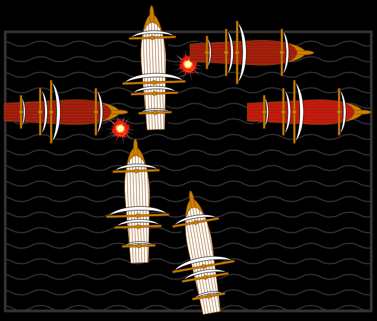
Raking

A broadside attack was powerful, but it exposed the ship to the enemy ship's fire. It was safer for the vessel to bring its broadside to the bow or stern of the enemy vessel. This meant the ship was able to fire through the entire length of the ship, while the enemy was unable to return fire. This was called 'raking'.



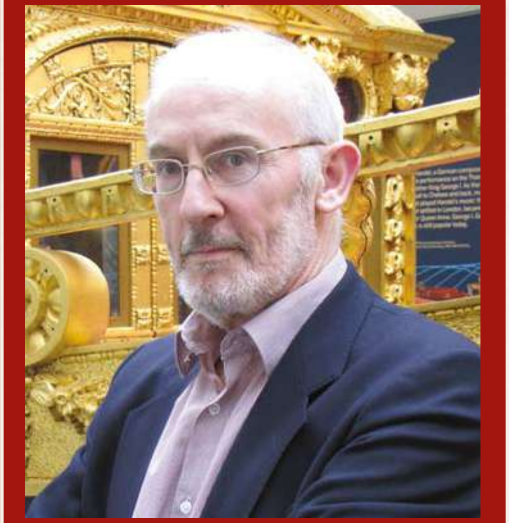
Traditional formation

Because the main aim of battles was to bring your ships broadside against the enemy's in order to unleash devastating firepower, ships would be aligned to unleash a torrent of attacks against each other. Often this resulted in two lines of ships sailing parallel and exchanging broadside over and over again.



The Nelson Touch

During the battle of Trafalgar, Nelson made the risky decision to abandon the traditional tactic and instead he attacked the fleet at right angles. His ships underwent a torrent of attacks as they approached, but when they broke through the line, they raked the enemy ships and knocked them out one by one.



Nelson's Legacy

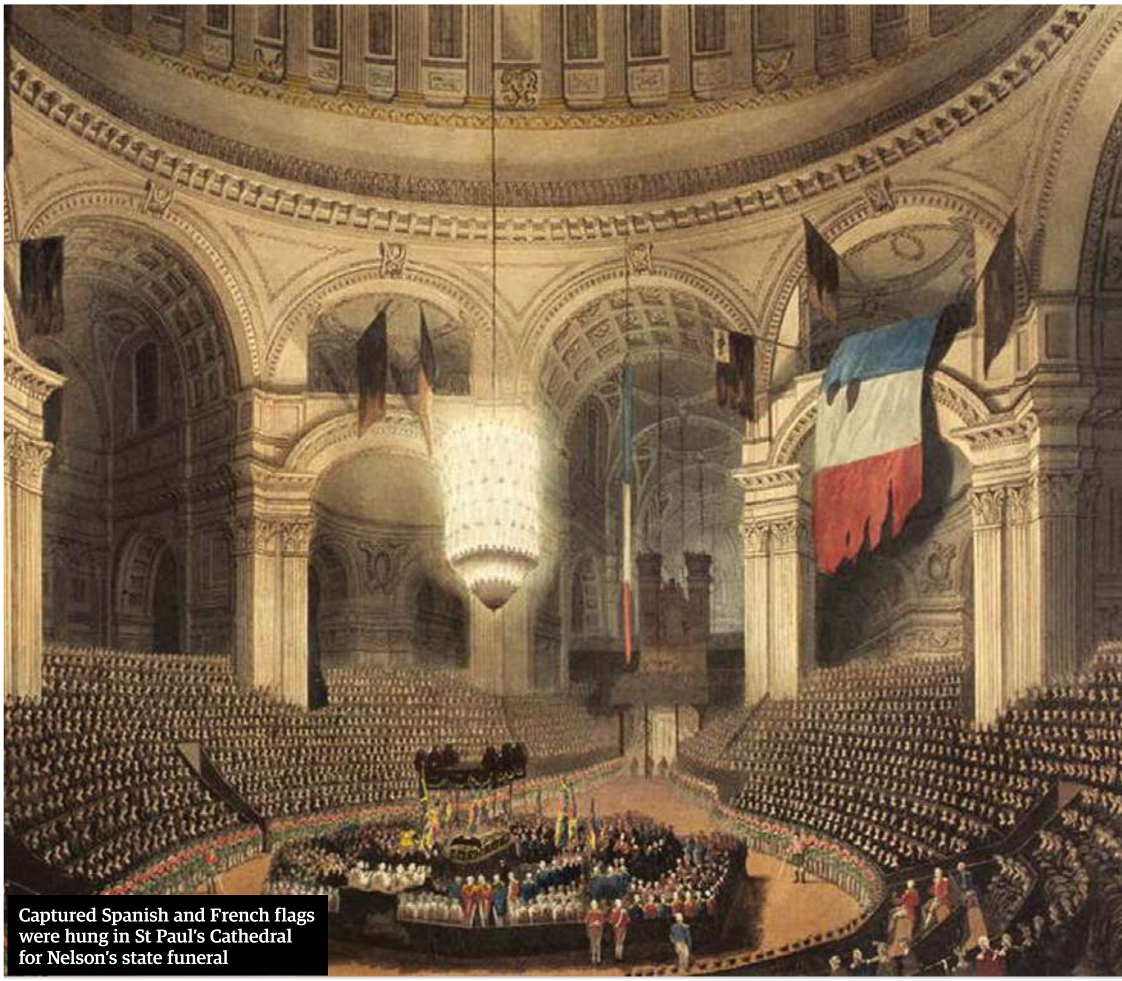
We speak to Roger Knight, who in 2000 changed his career from deputy director of the National Maritime Museum to that of teacher and author. His biggest book is the award-winning The Pursuit Of Victory: The Life And Achievement Of Horatio Nelson (2005). This biography was translated into French in 2015, the first time that this has happened since the 19th century. In September 2016, he is publishing a study guide on Nelson in the Connell Guides series.

How influential is Nelson and his legacy today?

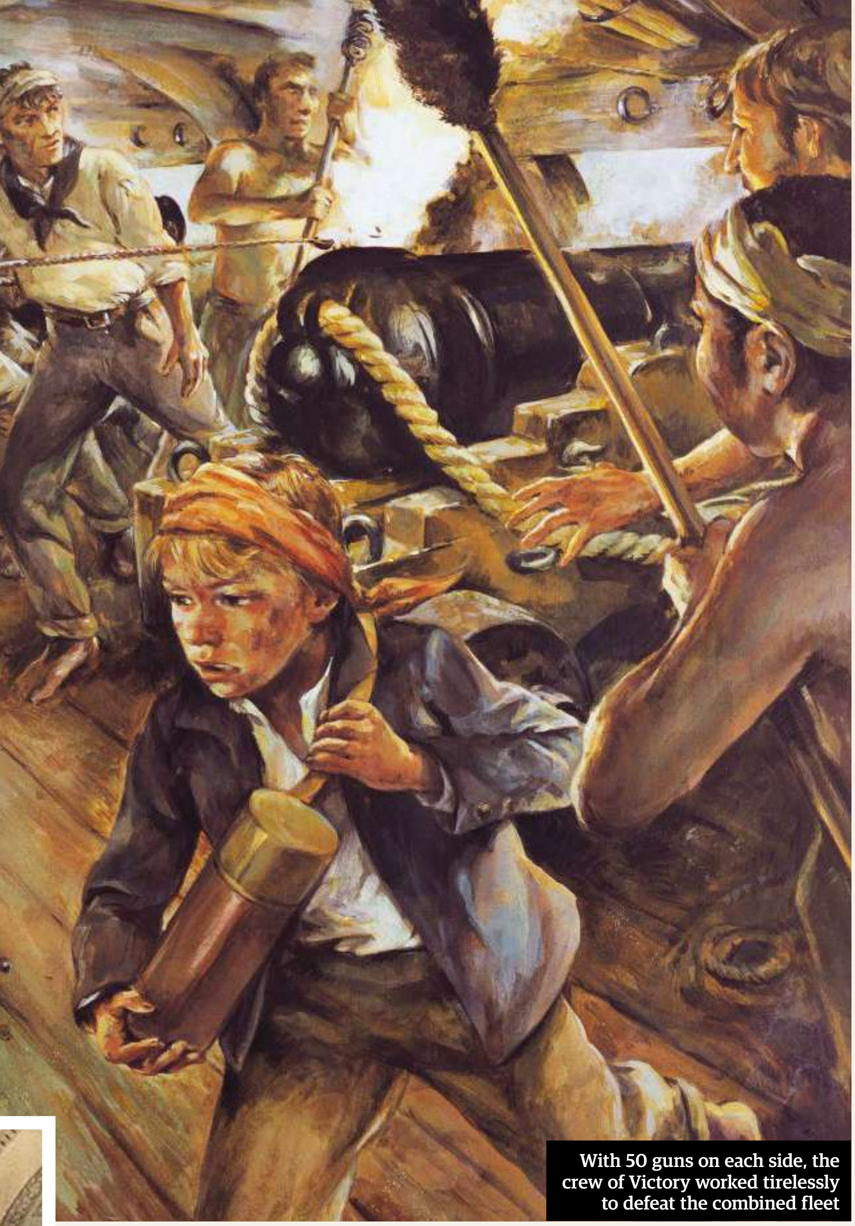
The legacy of Nelson has had a chequered history, for the straitlaced mid-Victorians did not approve of his relationship with Emma Hamilton and he was quietly dropped as a national hero. However, when the German naval threat emerged at the end of the 19th century, his heroic attributes were resurrected by those who wanted more warships to be built, and he came back into fashion.

The memory of his clear-cut victories led the British public to expect the Royal Navy to overwhelm the Germans in World War I – after the battle of Jutland in 1916, they were to be disappointed. However, the memory of his character and victories re-emerged as morale-raising propaganda during World War II. In the 21st century, the Royal Navy no longer has a worldwide role or an empire to defend and is a fraction of its mid-20th-century size. Yet Nelson's influence remains, and he is still in the first rank of national heroes. Navies around the world still study his leadership and management methods, when, most unusually for the time, he trusted and delegated responsibility downwards. One change that has taken place is that historians know much more about the officers, seamen and ships of the Georgian sailing navy, and studies of Nelson take the role of many other people and historical factors into account when writing about his victories.

Perhaps the most difficult strand of Nelson's legacy to analyse is the way in which he is still seen as the person who led the national resistance against the might of Napoleonic France. How much does his memory affect our complex relations with the continent of Europe?



Captured Spanish and French flags were hung in St Paul's Cathedral for Nelson's state funeral


With 50 guns on each side, the crew of Victory worked tirelessly to defeat the combined fleet

Nelson's Column, in the heart of London, is a permanent reminder of the admiral's sacrifice

Collingwood's Royal Sovereign as he burst through the line, but it was too late. Sovereign raked Santa Ana, the Spanish flagship, with an attack so devastating it disabled 14 guns and 400 crew members. Victory meanwhile was leading the charge towards the two ships Redoubtable and Bucentaure. With the fleet so crowded together, Victory was forced to ram the ship and fire off broadsides at point-blank range.

The situation was so dangerous that many had urged Nelson to conduct the battle from a safe distance, or at least remove the stars of honour that were gleaming on his coat. Nelson refused. He had come close to death so many times before, but he was convinced that he would meet his end at Trafalgar. He had already said farewell to his closest friends and family, and if he was going to die, he was going to go out in the heat of battle, with his medals on his chest.

French sailors in the rigging of Redoubtable were already picking off men exposed on Victory's deck. Minutes before Nelson himself was shot, a man standing beside him was blown in half by a cannon ball, but Nelson did not move. Whether it was for pride, bravado or courage, Nelson remained on the deck of his ship. Shortly after 1pm, a musket shot hit Nelson, throwing him to the deck floor and shattering his spine. Still calling out instructions to his crew, he was carried below and examined by a surgeon, who confirmed death was imminent.

Despite his injuries and suffering immense pain, Nelson constantly asked for updates on the battle. Before he died, he was informed that the British fleet had taken 15 enemy ships. Nelson's dangerous tactic had worked; he knew he had won. As he drew his last breath, his beloved flag captain Hardy kissed his forehead and Nelson uttered his final words: "Now I am satisfied. Thank God, I have done my duty." Nelson had never desired a long, comfortable life, he was a master of the seas and a seeker of adventure. As he left this world with the news of his greatest victory ringing in his ears, he departed it, finally, with pride.

Nelson's fatal injury caused him to miss the climax of the battle, where three British ships battered the French flagship Bucentaure into submission, and Villeneuve was forced to surrender. All around British ships were tearing holes into the combined fleet, at great loss of life. The French ship Achille refused to surrender, and was blown up with everyone on board. By the end of the battle, the British had suffered 1,666 casualties, while the combined fleet's casualties numbered near 14,000. France and Spain lost approximately 21 ships in the battle, while Britain lost none. Napoleon's plans to invade were well and truly thwarted.

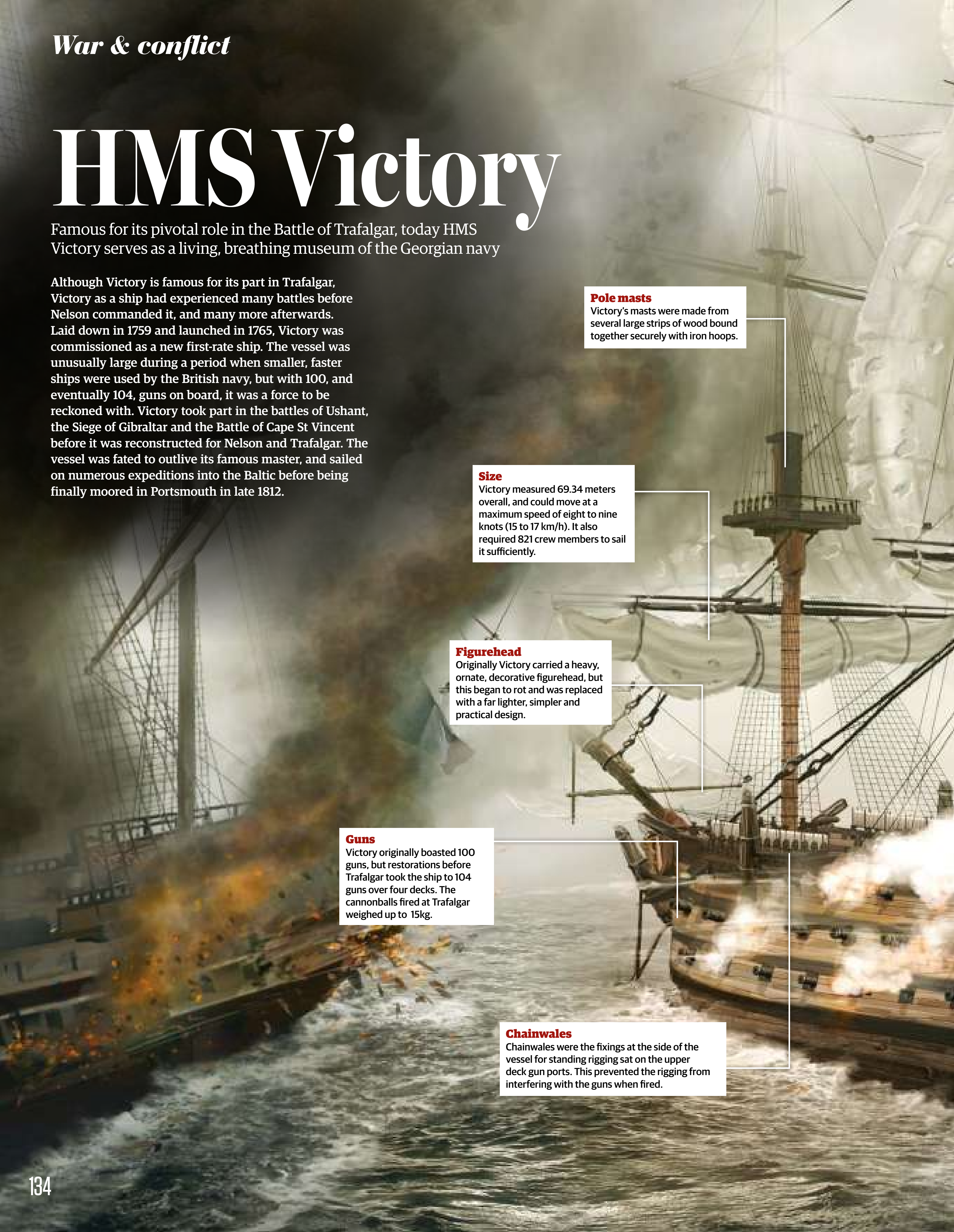
The victory at Trafalgar had cemented British dominance of the sea, a mastery that would go unchallenged for ten more years of war, and more than 100 years of worldwide naval domination. However, this victory was completely overshadowed in England by the news of Nelson's death. He had been the nation's hero before he departed, and when his body was returned, he was their martyr. Nelson's body was preserved for the journey back in a cask of rum, as the admiral had requested a land burial. He was honoured with a magnificent state funeral at St Paul's Cathedral, and his popularity soared. His image was carved into countless statues and monuments, streets were named after him, and his flagship was painstakingly preserved, surviving today as the oldest naval ship still in commission.

Nelson's rise from a small, sickly child to the greatest and most beloved war hero in British history is unlikely to ever be repeated. He remains a key part of British identity, and his famous column resides at the heart of the capital. The man himself has an almost god-like status, a source of pride, duty and bravery. But he was also a man who was led by a desire to prove himself, who suffered with self doubt. Perhaps this is Nelson and Britain's greatest achievement, not a naval victory, but the willpower and bravery to sail against the winds of uncertainty and fear, and to overcome.

HMS Victory

Famous for its pivotal role in the Battle of Trafalgar, today HMS Victory serves as a living, breathing museum of the Georgian navy

Although Victory is famous for its part in Trafalgar, Victory as a ship had experienced many battles before Nelson commanded it, and many more afterwards. Laid down in 1759 and launched in 1765, Victory was commissioned as a new first-rate ship. The vessel was unusually large during a period when smaller, faster ships were used by the British navy, but with 100, and eventually 104, guns on board, it was a force to be reckoned with. Victory took part in the battles of Ushant, the Siege of Gibraltar and the Battle of Cape St Vincent before it was reconstructed for Nelson and Trafalgar. The vessel was fated to outlive its famous master, and sailed on numerous expeditions into the Baltic before being finally moored in Portsmouth in late 1812.



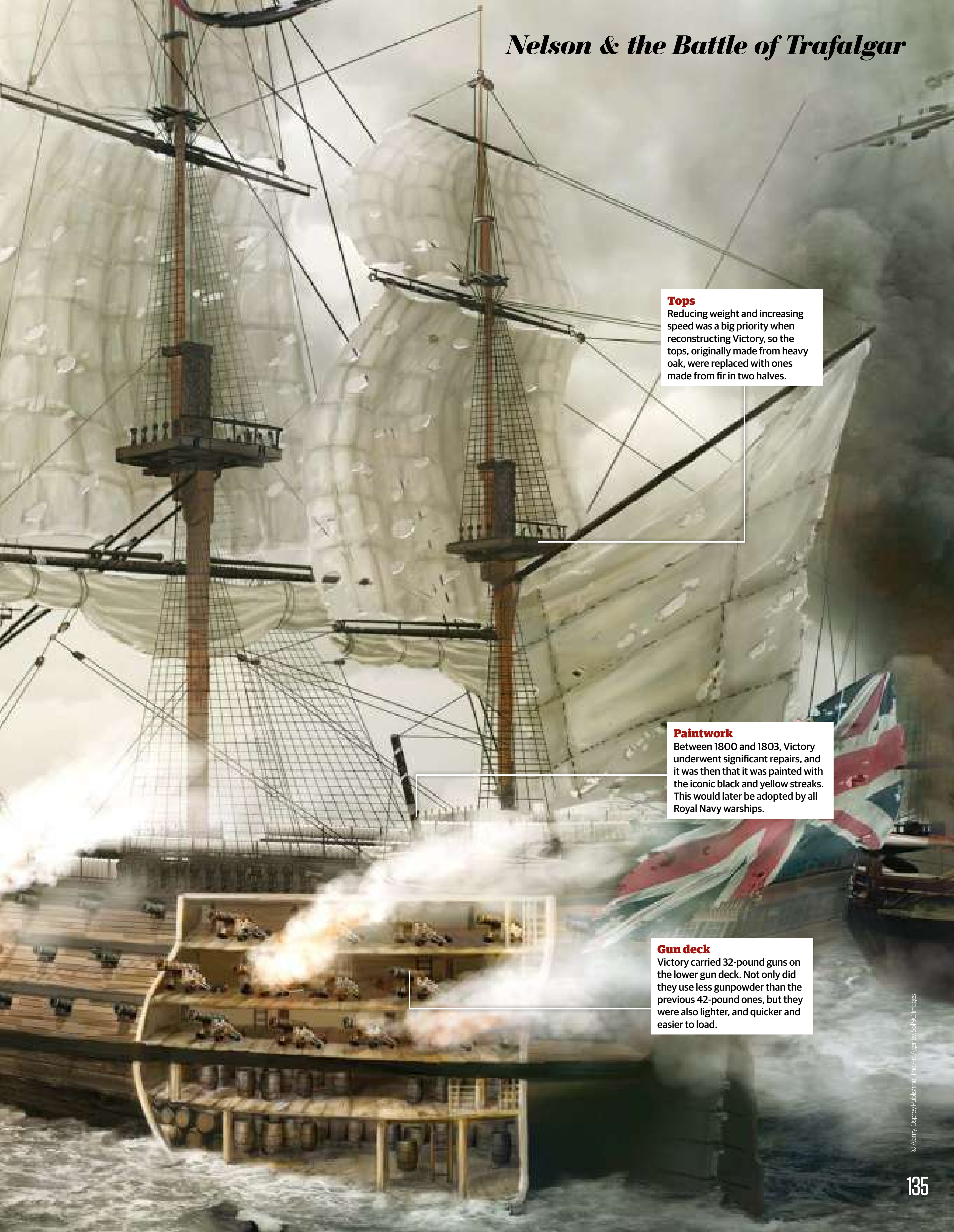
Pole masts
Victory's masts were made from several large strips of wood bound together securely with iron hoops.

Size
Victory measured 69.34 meters overall, and could move at a maximum speed of eight to nine knots (15 to 17 km/h). It also required 821 crew members to sail it sufficiently.

Figurehead
Originally Victory carried a heavy, ornate, decorative figurehead, but this began to rot and was replaced with a far lighter, simpler and practical design.

Guns
Victory originally boasted 100 guns, but restorations before Trafalgar took the ship to 104 guns over four decks. The cannonballs fired at Trafalgar weighed up to 15kg.

Chainwales
Chainwales were the fixings at the side of the vessel for standing rigging sat on the upper deck gun ports. This prevented the rigging from interfering with the guns when fired.



Tops
Reducing weight and increasing speed was a big priority when reconstructing Victory, so the tops, originally made from heavy oak, were replaced with ones made from fir in two halves.

Paintwork
Between 1800 and 1803, Victory underwent significant repairs, and it was then that it was painted with the iconic black and yellow streaks. This would later be adopted by all Royal Navy warships.

Gun deck
Victory carried 32-pound guns on the lower gun deck. Not only did they use less gunpowder than the previous 42-pound ones, but they were also lighter, and quicker and easier to load.

© Alamy, Osprey Publishing, The Art Agency, Sol90 Images

NAPOLEON VS WELLINGTON

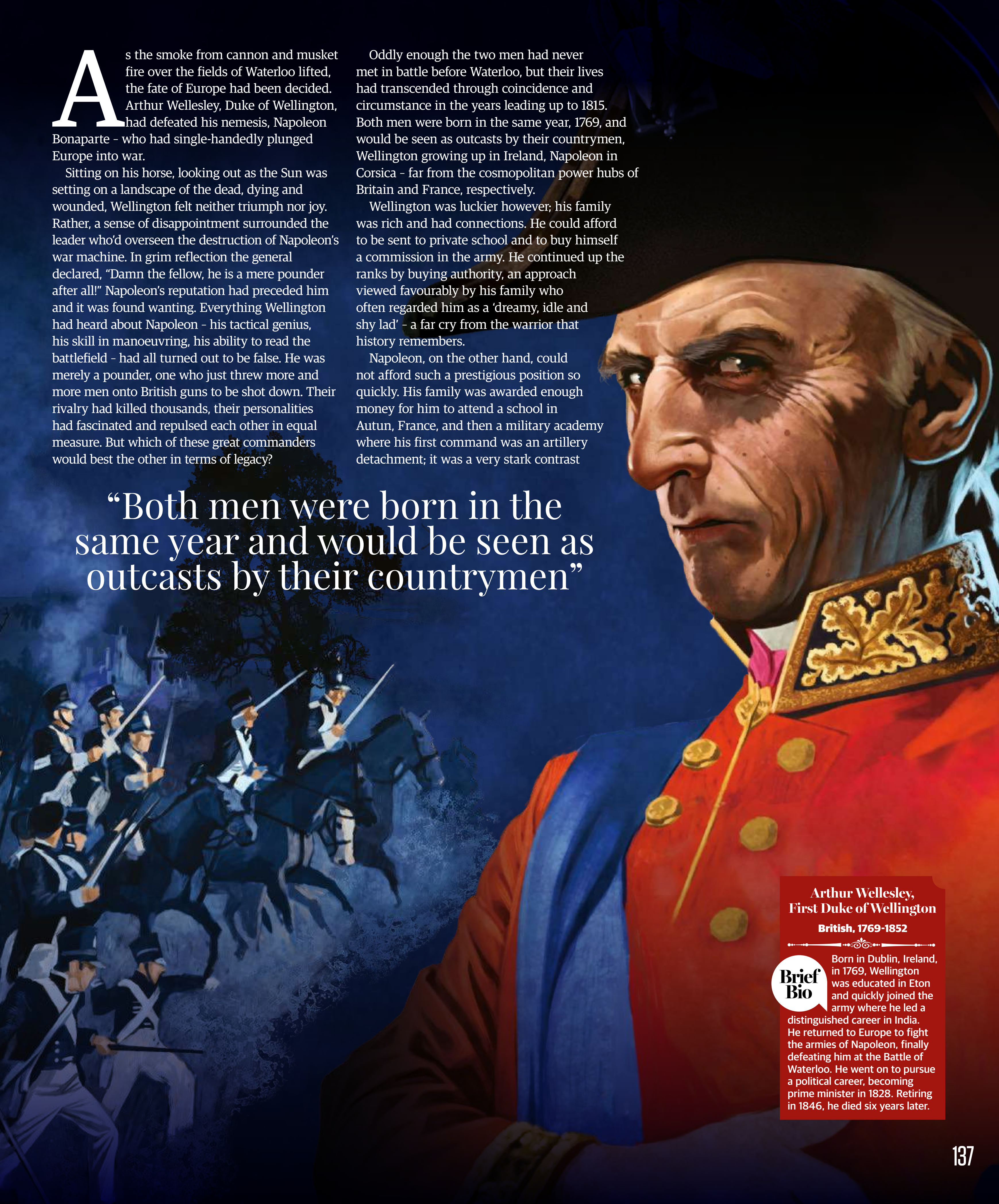
The epic story of two warriors and their personal battle that would decide the fate of empires

Written by Chris Fenton

Napoleon Bonaparte
French, 1769-1821

Brief Bio

Born on Corsica, Napoleon's family was given a scholarship for his education and military training in France gaining a commission in the army. He then served in the Republican army and led a military coup, overthrowing the directorate and declaring himself emperor of France. After Waterloo he was exiled to the mid-Atlantic island of St Helena where he died six years later.



As the smoke from cannon and musket fire over the fields of Waterloo lifted, the fate of Europe had been decided. Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, had defeated his nemesis, Napoleon Bonaparte - who had single-handedly plunged Europe into war.

Sitting on his horse, looking out as the Sun was setting on a landscape of the dead, dying and wounded, Wellington felt neither triumph nor joy. Rather, a sense of disappointment surrounded the leader who'd overseen the destruction of Napoleon's war machine. In grim reflection the general declared, "Damn the fellow, he is a mere pounder after all!" Napoleon's reputation had preceded him and it was found wanting. Everything Wellington had heard about Napoleon - his tactical genius, his skill in manoeuvring, his ability to read the battlefield - had all turned out to be false. He was merely a pounder, one who just threw more and more men onto British guns to be shot down. Their rivalry had killed thousands, their personalities had fascinated and repulsed each other in equal measure. But which of these great commanders would best the other in terms of legacy?

Oddly enough the two men had never met in battle before Waterloo, but their lives had transcended through coincidence and circumstance in the years leading up to 1815. Both men were born in the same year, 1769, and would be seen as outcasts by their countrymen, Wellington growing up in Ireland, Napoleon in Corsica - far from the cosmopolitan power hubs of Britain and France, respectively.

Wellington was luckier however; his family was rich and had connections. He could afford to be sent to private school and to buy himself a commission in the army. He continued up the ranks by buying authority, an approach viewed favourably by his family who often regarded him as a 'dreamy, idle and shy lad' - a far cry from the warrior that history remembers.

Napoleon, on the other hand, could not afford such a prestigious position so quickly. His family was awarded enough money for him to attend a school in Autun, France, and then a military academy where his first command was an artillery detachment; it was a very stark contrast

> "Both men were born in the same year and would be seen as outcasts by their countrymen"

Arthur Wellesley, First Duke of Wellington

British, 1769-1852

Brief Bio

Born in Dublin, Ireland, in 1769, Wellington was educated in Eton and quickly joined the army where he led a distinguished career in India. He returned to Europe to fight the armies of Napoleon, finally defeating him at the Battle of Waterloo. He went on to pursue a political career, becoming prime minister in 1828. Retiring in 1846, he died six years later.

to the glamorous assignments in India that Wellington enjoyed.

This was the classic story of the noble gaining rewards through connections, while the impoverished bourgeoisie struggled, through hard work, to gain recognition and it would dominate the two men's ideologies in later life. Wellington's formative years had made him reliant on the establishment and the noble network of patronage, while Napoleon was a child of enlightenment ideals, acquiring worth through hard graft and the need for recognition for all he had gained. Both men were ambitious but this ambition was funnelled through different class backgrounds: one emphasising establishment, the other a new and changing world view.

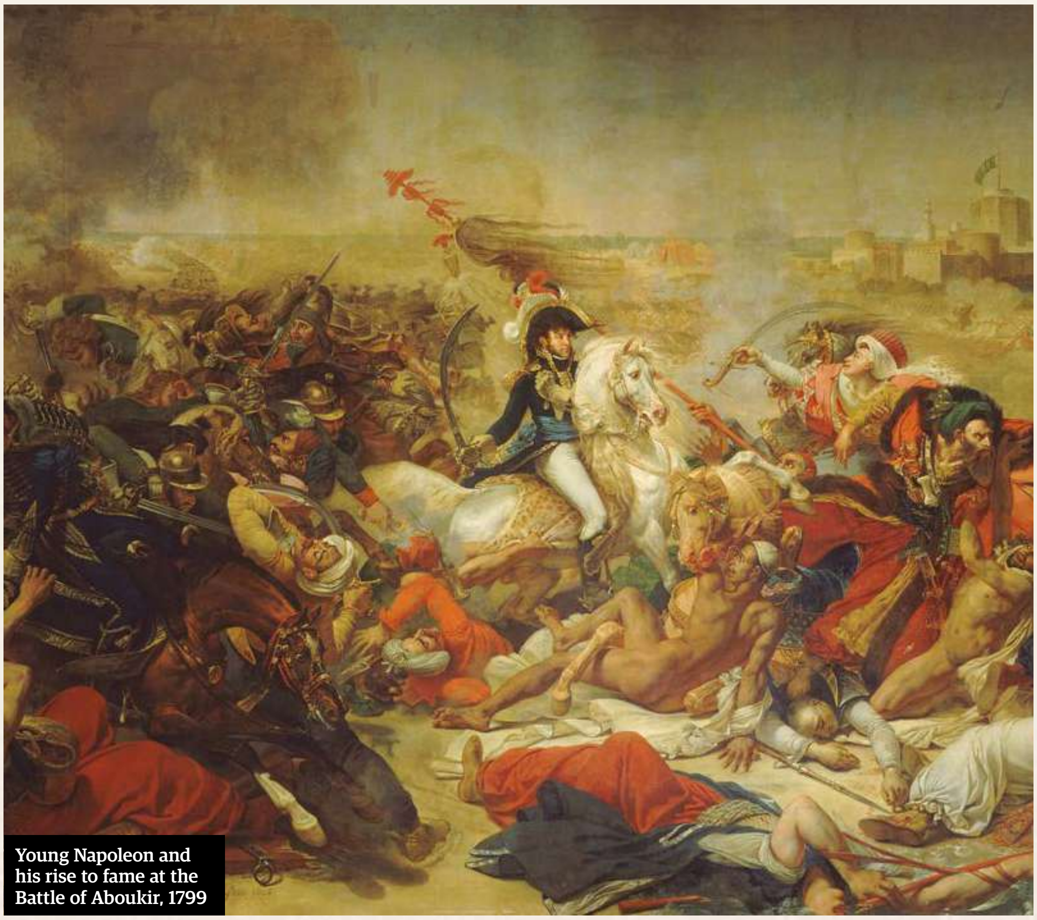
> “His ambition and fiery personality shattered countries and brought forth a new order”

Revolution, radical upheaval and the guillotine would force them to pick sides in the wars that were spreading like wildfire across Europe. Napoleon witnessed the French mob overrunning the royal family's palace at Tuileries, murdering the Swiss Guards as they surrendered. As the mob tore the palace apart, he marvelled at the power of the French people at their most motivated; he would make sure that the soldiers in his armies never lost this idealistic enthusiasm. To Napoleon the French Revolution was the hope for 'right thinkers' and the 'centuries of feudal barbarism and political slavery' would end in France as the light of liberty swept through the nation.

Wellington took an opposing view, noting in his diary: 'the Revolution, as it is called… has rather augmented the evil by bringing forward into public employment of importance, more inexperienced people… entirely incompatible with the nature of their business'. To him, the French Revolution and the terror that followed represented what would happen in Britain if society did not keep the man on the street in check. These views would harden as France rejected monarchical power for ever, Napoleon embracing the new regime as the next step in civilisation, while Wellington speculated that it would destroy civilised society.

The radical ideals instilled in Napoleon in his early life came to the fore during the years of military campaign. He grew tired of the corrupt nature of the French directorate which took over from the monarchy, declaring himself consul and then emperor in 1804. His ambition and fiery personality shattered countries and brought forth a new order – *his* order. The men serving under him loved his grandstanding and followed 'him cheerfully barefooted, and without provisions. Such was the enthusiasm, or rather the fanaticism, which Napoleon could inspire among his troops', as memoirs from his German campaigns recorded.

Wellington fought Napoleon by proxy, through his armies in Spain and, reflecting his desire for established order, drilled and flogged his ragtag army of demoralised British, Portuguese and Spanish troops, thereby turning them into a force that could win key battles. It was two very different command styles that met on the



Young Napoleon and his rise to fame at the Battle of Aboukir, 1799

Head to head
Politics

Wellington

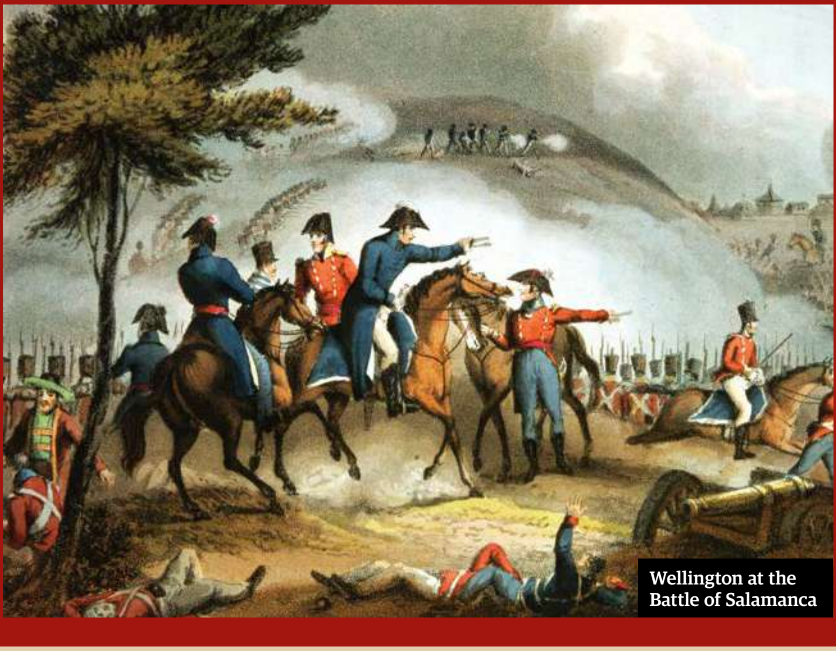
Leadership ★★★★★
Tactical ability ★★★★★
Flair ★★★★☆
Overall ★★★★★

Napoleon

Policies ★★★★★
Staying power ★★★★☆
Legacy ★★★★☆
Overall ★★★★☆

In his twilight years, Napoleon said that his Napoleonic Code – a codified set of laws protecting civil liberties and property rights – was his greatest achievement since his battles would be forgotten after Waterloo. Indeed, it changed France for ever and they still exist today in the French legal system as well as several other legal systems around Europe – his reformist ideals and vision for a new society outlasting him. The passion to reform that drove Napoleon was not present in Wellington. As a loyal part of the British establishment he clung to the British political structure with what he described as 'unhesitating zeal and cheerfulness'. He reacted against a number of liberal reforms including the Catholic Relief Act, which was designed to give Catholics more political representation in England. He also opposed the parliamentary Reform Act during his first tenure as prime minister (1828-1830) – an act that would have given greater democratic weight to the House of Commons. His uncompromising view that conservatism was the only way to prevent the guillotine appearing in Piccadilly and the threat from the common people whom he saw as 'rotten to the core' would eventually call an end to his political career when a new era of liberalism overtook British politics and society in general.

Battle of Salamanca

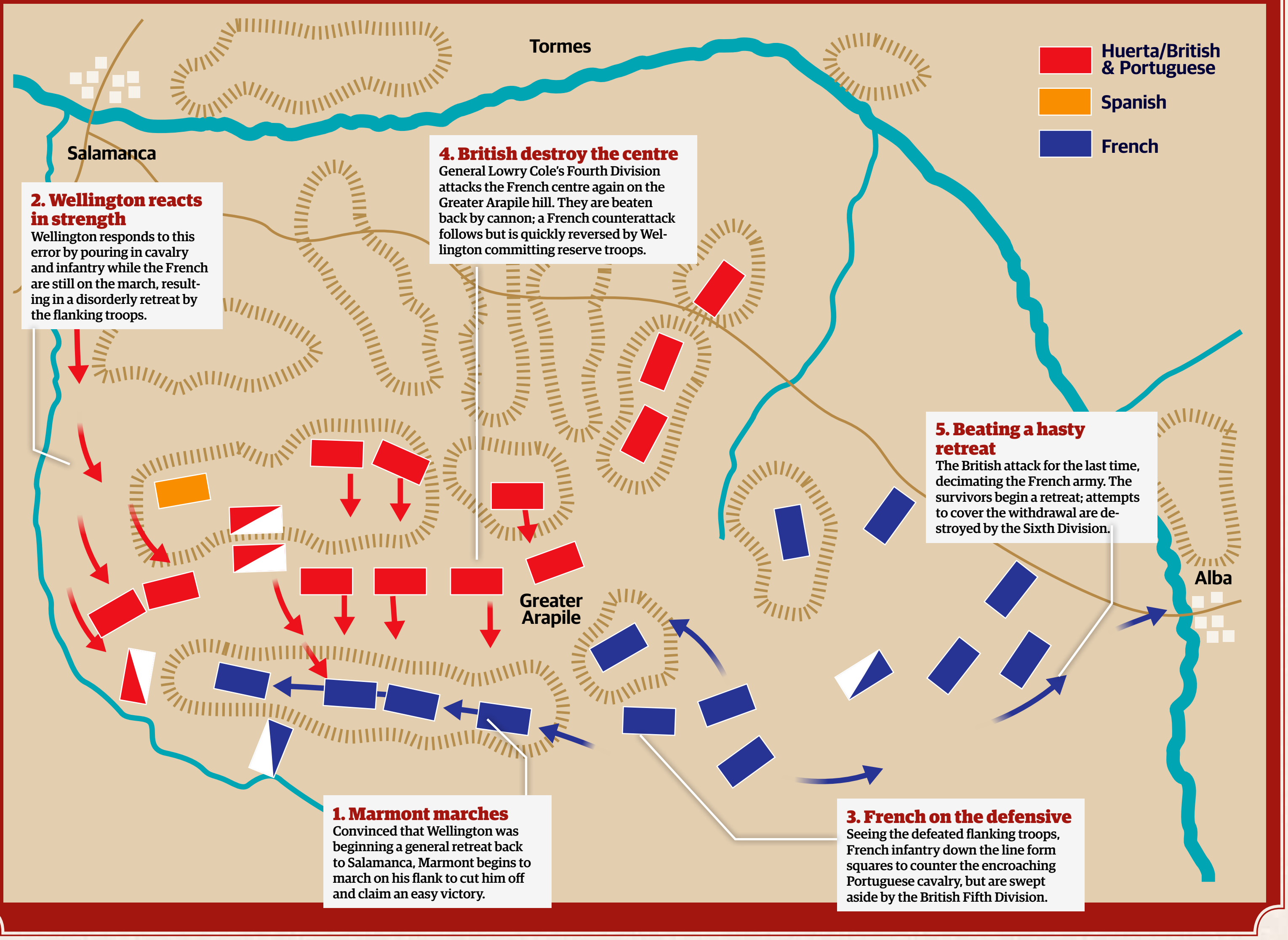


Wellington at the Battle of Salamanca

The Battle of Salamanca was fought in the fog of war, the endless cannon and musket fire patching the air with thick black smoke. It was a battle that exemplified Wellington's ability in the attack and put to rest the rumours that he was the master of the defensive battle only.

By 1812 Wellington had crossed over the Portuguese border capturing the Spanish town of Salamanca. A French army under Marshal Auguste-Frédéric de Marmont was waiting. Wary of the French numbers, Wellington waited for them to make the first move. In a critical miscalculation, Marmont mistook the British baggage train moving back as a general retreat. Too eager to claim Salamanca for his emperor, he shifted his forces to swing round to the west in an attempt to cut off the British before they fell back.

Wellington seized his opportunity, ordering a huge assault on the head of the flanking French forces, while they were still marching into position. The French were stunned, hundreds cut down from sabre wounds or shot. At the same time the French divisions facing Wellington in the centre had become dangerously weak because of the shift west. Wellington ordered another assault on their positions, causing the French to pull back with cavalry crashing down on the survivors. Panic swept across the French line, while divisions on the right held on; the French command – including Marmont himself – had been wounded in the attack. Confusion reigned until a French counterattack was beaten back forcing the French to retreat. It was a battle that more than proved Wellington's martial abilities.



1. Marmont marches
Convinced that Wellington was beginning a general retreat back to Salamanca, Marmont begins to march on his flank to cut him off and claim an easy victory.

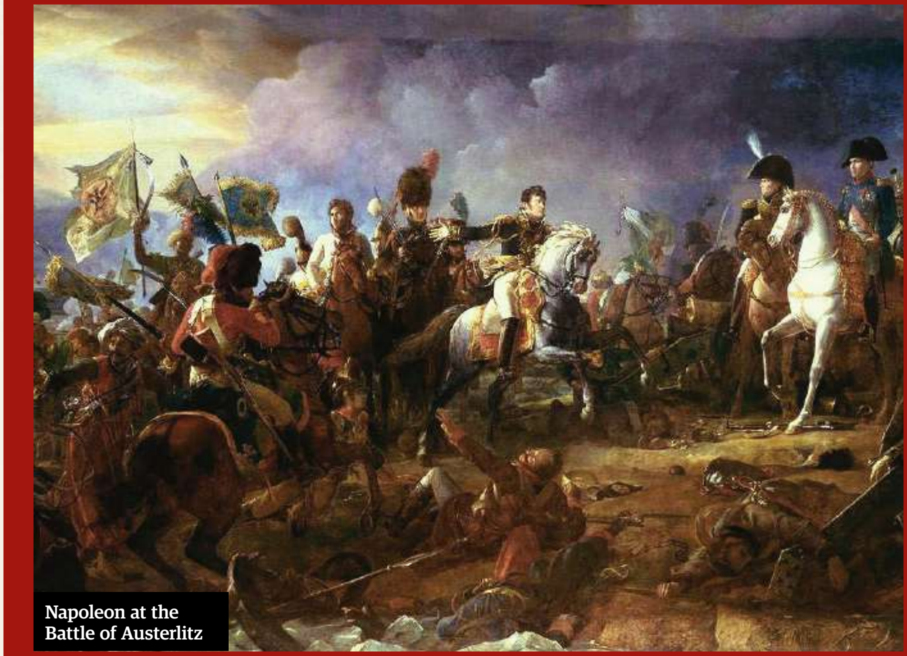
2. Wellington reacts in strength
Wellington responds to this error by pouring in cavalry and infantry while the French are still on the march, resulting in a disorderly retreat by the flanking troops.

3. French on the defensive
Seeing the defeated flanking troops, French infantry down the line form squares to counter the encroaching Portuguese cavalry, but are swept aside by the British Fifth Division.

4. British destroy the centre
General Lowry Cole's Fourth Division attacks the French centre again on the Greater Arapile hill. They are beaten back by cannon; a French counterattack follows but is quickly reversed by Wellington committing reserve troops.

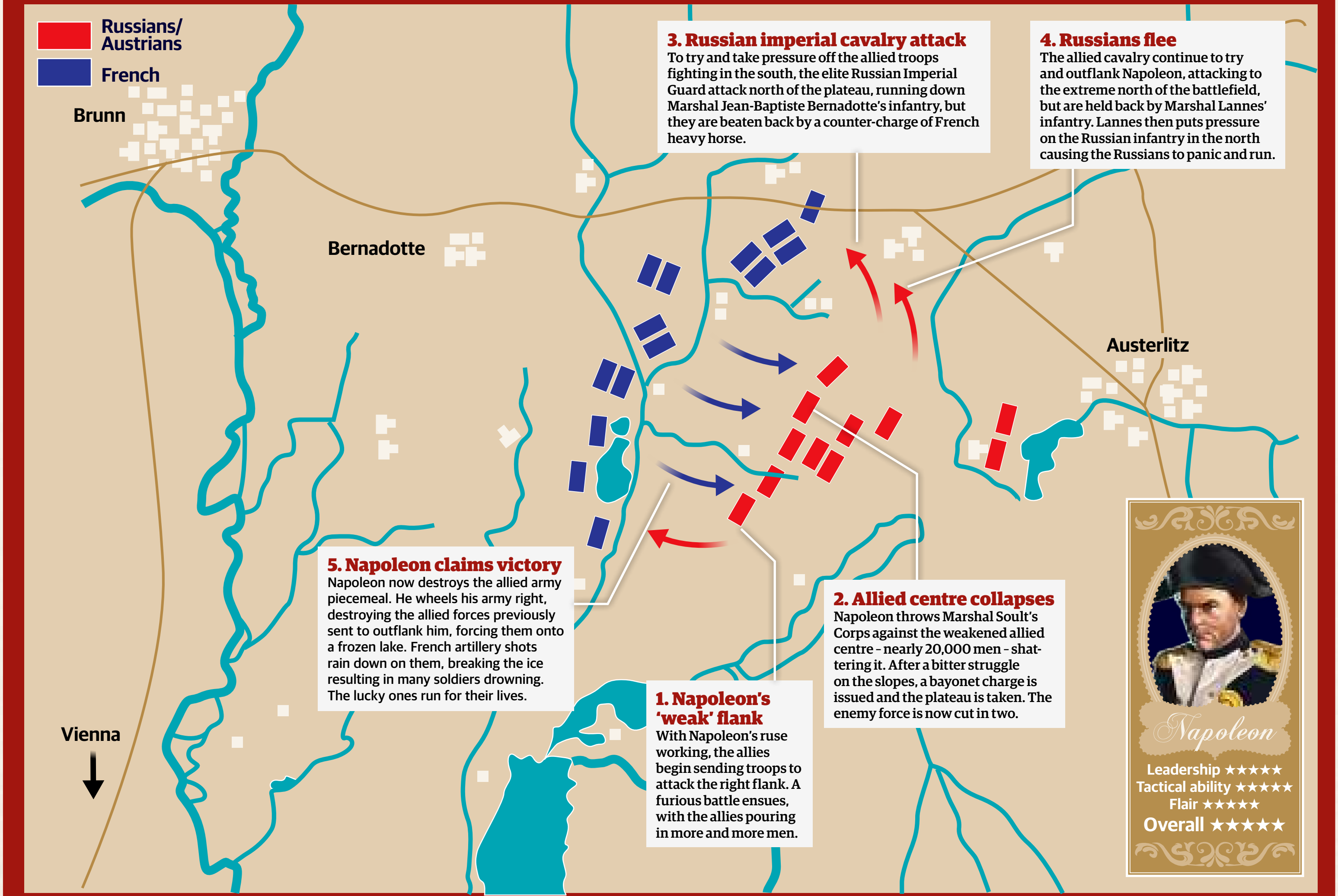
5. Beating a hasty retreat
The British attack for the last time, decimating the French army. The survivors begin a retreat; attempts to cover the withdrawal are destroyed by the Sixth Division.

Battle of Austerlitz



Napoleon at the Battle of Austerlitz

The Battle of Austerlitz was a masterclass in deception and manoeuvre. In the winter of 1805 Napoleon's Grande Armée faced off against the combined might of the emperor of Russia, Alexander I, and General Karl Mack, Baron von Leiberich of Austria. The three armies met near Austerlitz for a showdown in arms. The Russian and Austrian allies occupied the Pratzen Plateau to act as their central position and, after receiving intelligence that Napoleon's flank was weak, they struck south, towards the French right to cut them off from Vienna. This attack was repulsed by a French force in strength - something the allies were not expecting. As the allies threw in more men to reinforce the southern attack, the allied position on the plateau started to weaken from the drain in manpower. Napoleon was overjoyed; it was all going according to plan. By making the enemy command think his flank was weak, the allies were funnelling troops away from the strategically vital plateau leaving it open to attack. The ensuing French assault was so ferocious that it sent the allies into a panic, shattering their line and cutting the allied army in half. Repeated attacks north of the plateau could not push the French away from the central position, leaving Napoleon to clean up. In blind panic, allied soldiers originally sent to flank Napoleon ran over the frozen ponds south of their positions as French artillery fire broke the ice. Many of the wounded were trampled and drowned in the icy waters. It was a masterstroke of deception, Napoleon essentially using his own flank as bait to draw his opponents to their deaths.



1. Napoleon's 'weak' flank

With Napoleon's ruse working, the allies begin sending troops to attack the right flank. A furious battle ensues, with the allies pouring in more and more men.

2. Allied centre collapses

Napoleon throws Marshal Soult's Corps against the weakened allied centre - nearly 20,000 men - shattering it. After a bitter struggle on the slopes, a bayonet charge is issued and the plateau is taken. The enemy force is now cut in two.

3. Russian imperial cavalry attack

To try and take pressure off the allied troops fighting in the south, the elite Russian Imperial Guard attack north of the plateau, running down Marshal Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte's infantry, but they are beaten back by a counter-charge of French heavy horse.

4. Russians flee

The allied cavalry continue to try and outflank Napoleon, attacking to the extreme north of the battlefield, but are held back by Marshal Lannes' infantry. Lannes then puts pressure on the Russian infantry in the north causing the Russians to panic and run.

5. Napoleon claims victory

Napoleon now destroys the allied army piecemeal. He wheels his army right, destroying the allied forces previously sent to outflank him, forcing them onto a frozen lake. French artillery shots rain down on them, breaking the ice resulting in many soldiers drowning. The lucky ones run for their lives.

Napoleon

Leadership ★★★★★
Tactical ability ★★★★★
Flair ★★★★★
Overall ★★★★★

battlefield and publicly the leaders would sneer and berate each other.

Napoleon would bite at Wellington's early career in India claiming that he was nothing more than a 'sepoy general', good at looking grand in exotic palaces but not at much else. While his adversary would lambaste Napoleon as a dictator claiming that everything he did carried an element of meanness. He ridiculed Napoleon's power claiming that 'Napoleon's power stands upon corruption, that he has no [admirers] in France but the principal officers of his army'.

In private and to select friends, however, these explosive attitudes were very different. After the Battle of Toulouse in 1814, Napoleon complimented the military talents of Wellington and the bravery of his troops to a select group of officers. For Wellington the emotions ran deeper still, acquiring a huge bust of Napoleon so he could look him in the eyes during his years in England. He commented, "I would at any time rather have heard that a reinforcement of 40,000 men had joined the French army, than that he had arrived to take command." This mix of emotions betrays a fascination that both men held for each other – the radical differences in political and ideological beliefs attracting both to comment on one another's actions, even to the point where Wellington felt he needed to be around his opponent at all times, making space in his home for his rival – albeit a plaster likeness.

Love and romantic intrigue was never far away from dashing military officers commanding the armies of empires. The personal lives of both the generals presented a mixture of triumphs and defeats as dramatic as any of their exploits on the battlefield; their love life also had a lasting influence on them personally.

Wellington married out of duty to a woman he had previously confessed his love to, Catherine Pakenham, in 1806. Wellington found his wife's depressive nature and her inability to keep track of her spending extremely frustrating. Given his tight-lipped nature, he quickly became estranged from her and, as rumour would have it, took a mistress – Harriet Arbuthnot. Arbuthnot later commented on a portrait of Wellington in civilian clothes describing it as something others rarely saw – a 'softness and sweetness of countenance'. If Wellington was in love though, he rarely let his passions show, especially in the public eye.

As the polar opposite to this hard outward exterior, Napoleon – now in post-revolutionary France – married his sweetheart, Joséphine de Beauharnais. Napoleon loved his new wife fiercely; it was said that few women possessed more charm

Head to head
Leadership

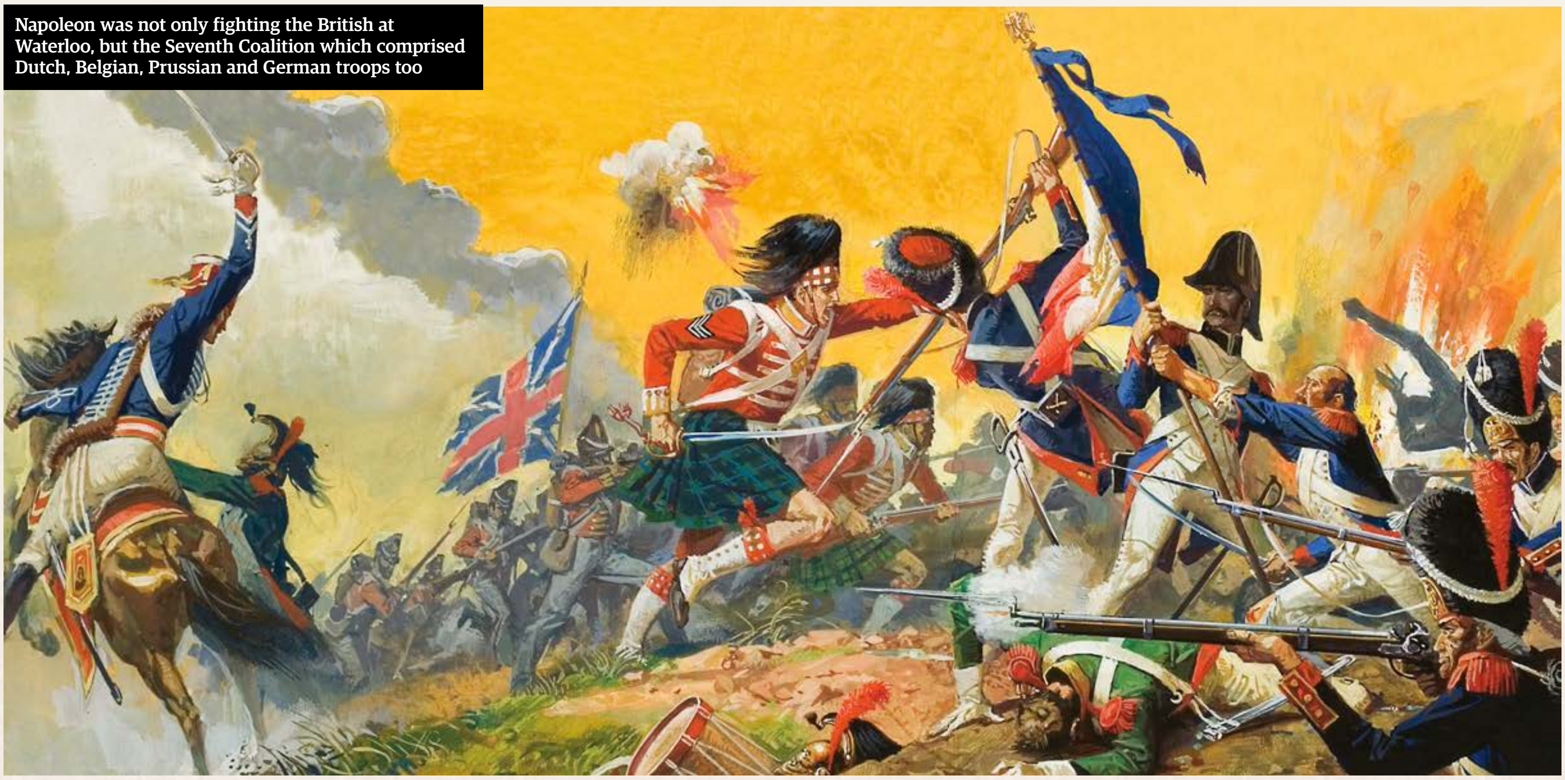
Wellington

Military ★★★★★
Popularity ★★★☆☆
Charisma ★★★★☆
Overall ★★★★☆

It goes without saying that both Napoleon and Wellington had considerable command ability and the military skill of these men changed the course of history, but their approach differed considerably. Wellington was renowned for his reliance on strict discipline – something which he saw as the key to victory. He once commented in 1813 that his troops were the 'scum of the Earth', unmotivated and little more than criminals which he would train and drill, turning them into heroes. To the average British soldier he was a terrifying figure and life within his army was a harsh routine of endless drills, training and floggings. While Wellington may have gained prestige as a great general in the palaces of government, his men would not thank him for their experiences. By contrast to this iron discipline, Napoleon preferred to grandiose himself in front of his troops to inspire them to great deeds of courage. The French soldier – already stirred by the great events of the French Revolution – would cheer and chant "Vive l'Empereur!" during army reviews – the passionate, hot-blooded nature of Napoleon standing in contrast to the cold, conservative nature of Wellington's stiff upper lip. Napoleon would capitalise on this enthusiasm through many a conquest with his adoring and loyal troops.

Napoleon

Military ★★★★☆
Popularity ★★★★★
Charisma ★★★★★
Overall ★★★★★



Napoleon was not only fighting the British at Waterloo, but the Seventh Coalition which comprised Dutch, Belgian, Prussian and German troops too

Head to head
Legacy

Wellington

Military ★★★★★
Political ★★☆☆☆
Fame ★★★☆☆
Overall ★★★☆☆

Wellington's cold ambition, his unemotional nature and his unflinching resolve are what we often remember, hence his alias: the Iron Duke. He was the great military hero who stoically defied the tyrannical ambitions of the 'evil' Napoleon and, through British ingenuity, checked the Grande Armée by beating it at its own game. What is forgotten is the sacrifice of British troops, the great reverses in fortune and the unrelenting conservatism which undid his political career. For Napoleon it is often seen the other way round. His defeats are remembered, the tragic story of his exile to St Helena is emphasised, and his invasions of countless countries are condemned as warmongering. One could argue that, since he lost everything in a spectacular final gamble at Waterloo, it is Wellington who ultimately wins the battle of legacy. But a closer look at the political scene post-Waterloo tells a different story. Napoleon's victories in countries like Spain, Prussia and the Italian states brought with them enlightenment ideals of a codified system of law guaranteeing the rights of the citizen as well as democratic principles – albeit under French domination – to countries that previously existed under the yoke of dictatorial monarchies. These laws would live on, and so would Napoleon.

Napoleon

Military ★★★★☆
Political ★★★★★
Fame ★★★★★
Overall ★★★★★

and his love letters were famously graphic for the time. In one passionate exchange he pledged to give her a thousand kisses, but he tells Joséphine to 'give me none, for they fire my blood'.

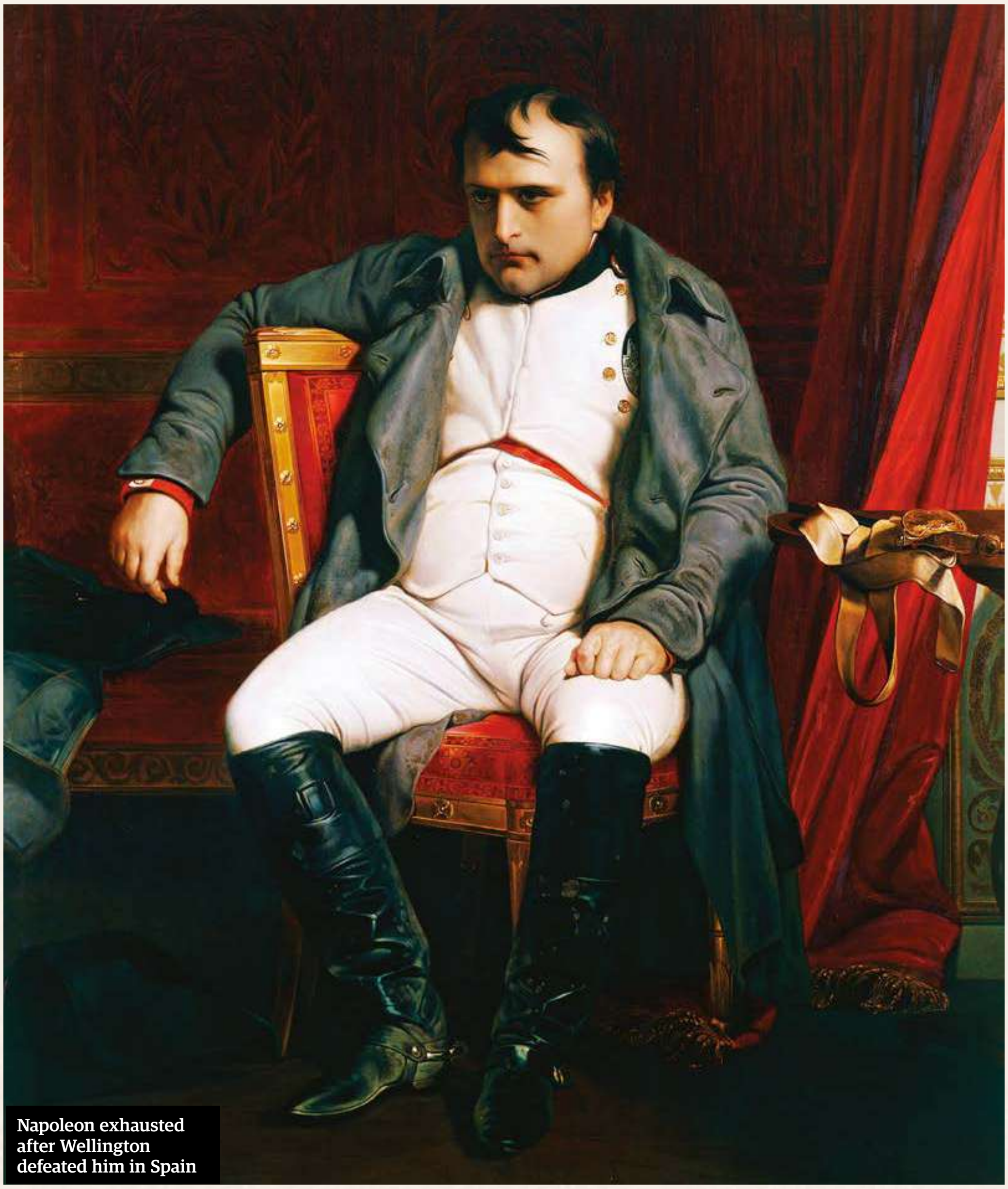
A commentator speculated that one of the main factors that drove his aggressive nature in battle was to impress Joséphine through his military prowess. This love was sadly not to last, however. In a painful exchange of letters to his brother sent when he was on campaign in Egypt, he discovered that Joséphine was being unfaithful. When he heard the news he convulsed and banged his fists against his head, leading him to become despondent about life and the people around him. He divorced in 1810, after a string of mistresses that were designed to exact revenge on Joséphine's betrayal. The lovesick Napoleon found little consolation in his second wife, Marie-Louise Archduchess of Austria, who he would describe as 'a walking womb' for political advancement.

Both men were unlucky in love, but there is a critical difference: Napoleon's personal life almost destroyed his ambition and shook him to his very core, whereas Wellington kept his emotions in check, befitting his very English upbringing.

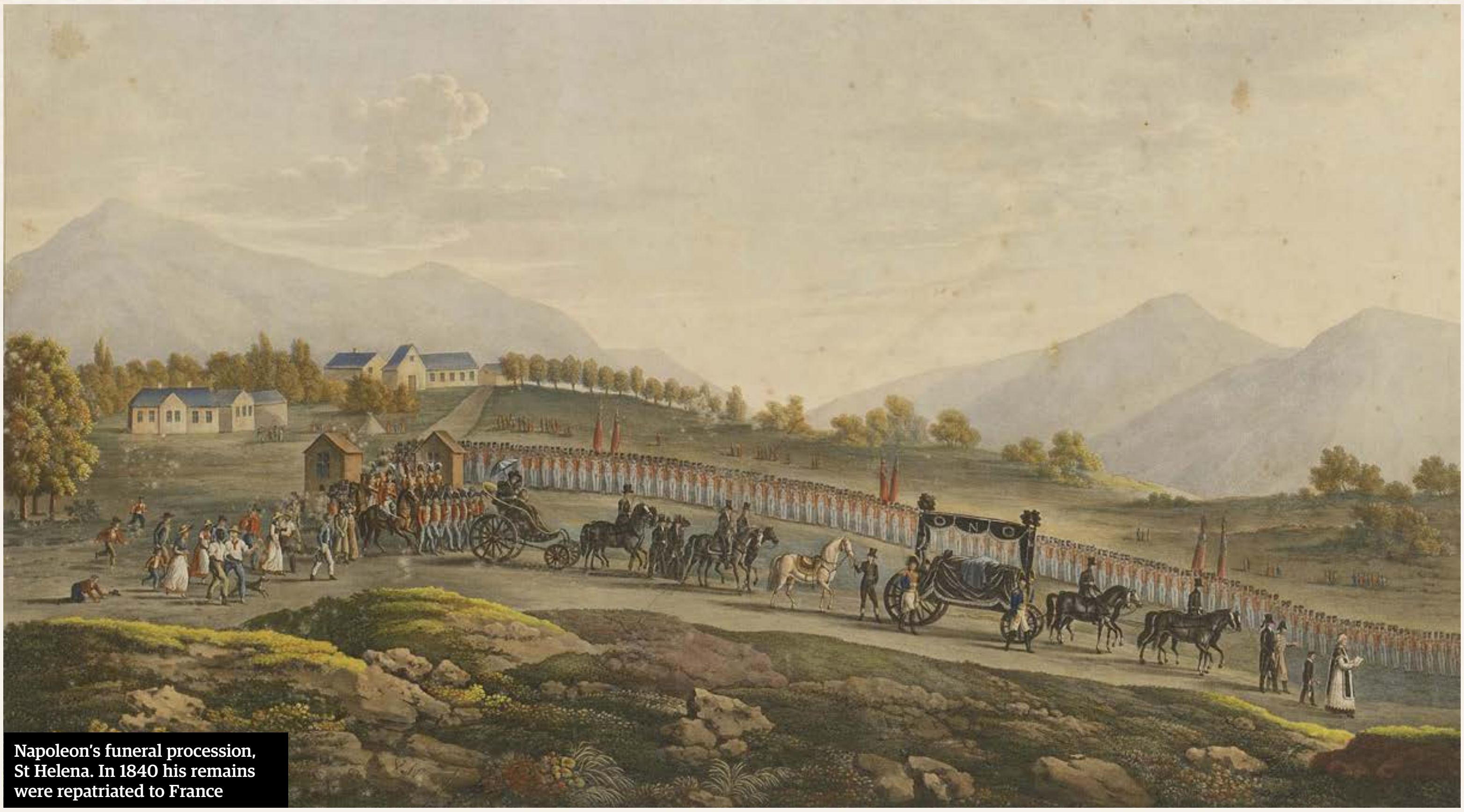
Military defeats, political setbacks and the invasion of France by Britain and its allies forced Napoleon to abdicate his throne and be exiled to Elba, a small island in the Mediterranean. A few days before he left for Elba, he wrote a letter to the woman he had never stopped loving, Joséphine: 'Never forget him who never forgot, and who never will forget you'.

This was a man who was reflecting on his defeats and heartbreak. As a final humiliation he was allowed to keep the title of emperor – emperor of a tiny Mediterranean island with a population numbering no more than 12,000. Joséphine never visited him on Elba; she would die in 1814 while Napoleon was in exile, compounding his woe. He kept himself busy ushering in a number of reforms on the island for the benefit of its populace, but often he launched into vicious tirades and depressive rants, saying that his generals had betrayed him, that he had trusted the wrong people, that he had lost everything.

By contrast, Wellington was triumphant. He travelled to Paris having been made a duke and, in a show of power, was appointed the British ambassador to France. He took in the delights of Paris – now an exciting, free city, met his mistress in romantic Parisian suburbs and was lauded as a true British hero at home. He continued to write his memoirs, but grew tired of journalists and authors, especially when rumours circulated about his private life.



Napoleon exhausted after Wellington defeated him in Spain



Napoleon's funeral procession, St Helena. In 1840 his remains were repatriated to France

It was the confidence that Wellington gained after 1814 and the depressive self-reflection that Napoleon went through on Elba that would dictate the epic battle that would leave one of them standing victorious a year later.

After sensing that the restored royal power in France was weakening, Napoleon decided to roll the dice one last time in an attempt to take ultimate power. In a daring escape he slipped away from his guards and, with help from his loyal followers, sailed to the French mainland for a final reckoning with Wellington. At Waterloo, the personalities, the war of words, the endless studying and critiquing of each other's abilities came to bear in the heat of battle.

Napoleon believed totally in his troops; his soldiers had conquered everything in the early years of that century and, in his eyes, this battle should have been no different. Yet at Waterloo his judgement was impaired; there was no signature masterstroke as seen at Austerlitz in 1805. The year in exile, the loss of his beloved Joséphine and the trauma of losing his empire had finally broken his ability to read the battlefield, causing the edifice of his military genius to crumble.

His physical health was also frail after the stresses of the last ten years; he was suffering from crippling stomach pain which prevented him from ordering his troops clearly. Instead of attacking straight away he dithered, initially afraid to lose his army which was the only thing giving him legitimacy. He then changed his mind, committing himself to head-on attacks into British muskets and cannon. Rather than being in control of his ambition he was blinded by it - his lust to win and regain his power overriding his skills in directing the battle.

> "Napoleon decided to roll the dice one last time in an attempt to take ultimate power"

Wellington described Waterloo as a 'pounding match', but Wellington was wrong. Napoleon was not merely a pounder; it was his personal defeats taking their toll. He was a desperate man - desperate to silence his critics and become emperor again -no matter the cost.

Wellington took advantage of his adversary's unhinged emotional state. He had the confidence, having defeated the troops of Napoleon before, he had the charisma having gained glory and fame in England after liberating Portugal and Spain, and he had the hard-nosed will to emerge victorious. In the end the Iron Duke's steady, iron-hard temperament had outlasted the reckless, up-and-down personality of Napoleon.

Like a tragic character in a Greek epic, Napoleon had claimed his empire, had been defeated and now suffered indignity in enforced exile - this time for good. His ambition had ultimately bested him, losing to a man who had never overplayed his hand in his quest for power.

The former emperor's bitterness was chronicled in his memoirs which he wrote during his time on the Atlantic island of St Helena, claiming that Wellington's plan at Waterloo 'will not in the eyes of the historian reflect any credit on Lord Wellington as a general… [H]is plan did not show talent.' He did, however, praise the bravery and firmness of Wellington's troops.

On the surface, it would be easy for Wellington to claim the strongest legacy given the victories he achieved and dismiss Napoleon as nothing more than a sore loser. Yet Wellington's triumphs only gave to him what British society would allow him to gain. In the end his political career after Waterloo fell to pieces because the establishment - which he had given his lifeblood to protect - no longer tolerated his presence. Napoleon had created from scratch his own establishment in the form of his European empire which, at its height, stretched from Spain to the gates of Moscow. His lust for life and liberty, plus his passion for a better world that he would preside over, and would leave for his son, were his raison d'être.

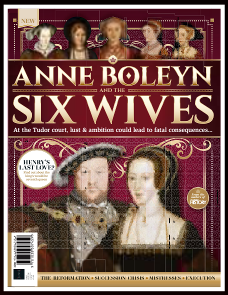
He once said that the invasion of Russia would make him 'master of the world'. Not content to be handed what others were willing to give him, Napoleon wanted the world for himself. His power wasn't to last, but nevertheless his ambition presents a striking image of aspiration since through sheer force of will he fought to have it all.

© Look and Learn; Getty; Joe Cummings; Alamy

NEW
ALL ABOUT HISTORY
GREATEST EMPIRES
Chart the rise and fall of history's most powerful states
DISCOVER THE EMPIRE ON WHICH THE SUN NEVER SET
AZTECS ◆ OTTOMAN ◆ ABBASID

Discover how the greatest empires in history were forged

NEW
HISTORY OF WAR
KOREAN WAR
THE DRAMATIC STORY OF DECADES OF CONFLICT


NEW
ANNE BOLEYN AND THE SIX WIVES

NEW
STALIN
HITLER vs STALIN

NEW
HISTORY OF WAR
DUNKIRK
THE EVENT THAT SHAPED THE COURSE OF HISTORY
THE EVACUATION • KEY PLAYERS • THE AFTERMATH

NEW
SCANDALS OF THE WINDSORS
The rumours and romances that threatened to ruin the royal family

Explore the disasters that have threatened the British monarchy

NEW
HISTORY'S GREATEST MYSTERIES
UNANSWERED, UNSOLVED AND UNEXPLAINED

NEW
ALL ABOUT HISTORY ANNUAL
The events, people & civilisations that changed the world

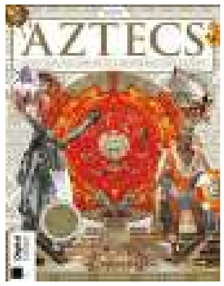
HENRY VIII
Inside the royal court of the unexpected Tudor king

NEW
HISTORY Book of
US PRESIDENTS
Discover the iconic leaders who shaped history

HISTORY OF WAR
NEW
HITLER AT WAR
EXPLORE THE RISE AND FALL OF HISTORY'S GREATEST MONSTER
BATTLES ✽ STRATEGIC MISTAKES

Chart the rise of Hitler and learn how he set Germany on the path to war

NEW
ASSASSINATIONS
THE MURDERS, PLOTS AND CONSPIRACIES THAT CHANGED HISTORY
OVER 25
BRUTAL COUPS
FAILED ATTEMPTS
INSIDE THE PLOT TO KILL HITLER



NEW
ALL ABOUT HISTORY Book of the
TUDORS
Discover the legendary period of British history and the people who shaped it
Inside Britain's greatest dynasty
WARS OF THE ROSES • HENRY VIII • ELIZABETH I • TUDOR EMPIRE

NEW
GEORGIANS

NEW
HISTORY of the UNITED STATES
HOLLYWOOD
ICONIC LEADERS • FIERCE CONFLICTS • UNFORGETTABLE EVENTS

✓ Get great savings when you buy direct from us

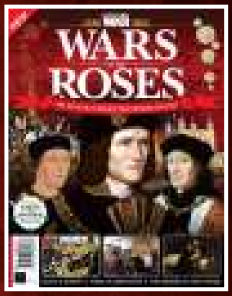
✓ 1000s of great titles, many not available anywhere else

✓ World-wide delivery and super-safe ordering

US MILITARY'S GREATEST LEADERS

DEFINING BATTLES OF WORLD WAR II
THE KEY CONFLICTS AND OPERATIONS FROM HISTORY'S BLOODIEST WAR

HISTORY OF Folklore, Fairytales & Monsters



EVERYTHING YOU NEED TO KNOW ABOUT THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

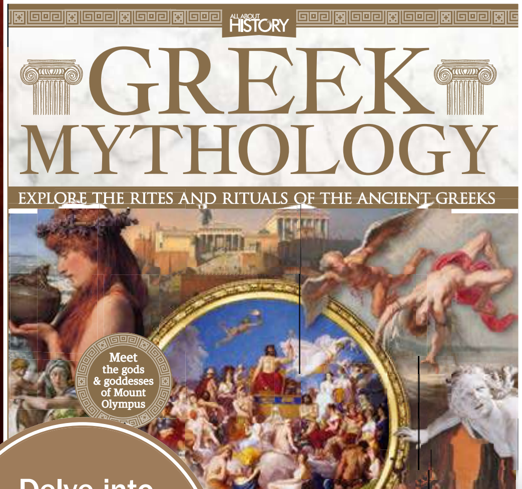
What if... Alternative History

STEP BACK IN TIME WITH OUR HISTORY TITLES

Immerse yourself in a world of emperors, pioneers, conquerors and legends and discover the events that shaped humankind

HISTORY of GHOSTS

HISTORY OF NASA


ALL ABOUT HISTORY
GREEK MYTHOLOGY
EXPLORE THE RITES AND RITUALS OF THE ANCIENT GREEKS
Meet the gods & goddesses of Mount Olympus

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS

BOOK OF SPELLS

Delve into the myths and monsters of ancient Greece

Follow us on Instagram @futurebookazines

FUTURE

www.myfavouritemagazines.co.uk

Magazines, back issues & bookazines.

SUBSCRIBE &
SAVE UP TO 61%

Delivered direct to your door
or straight to your device

CLASSIC ROCK
HOW IT WORKS
ULTIMATE QUIZ SPECIAL
FourFourTwo
TOTAL FILM
BLACK WIDOW
ALL ABOUT HISTORY
MAYAN MYSTERIES REVEALED
EDGE
Feel Better
T3
UPGRADE YOUR HOME TECH
NEXT-GEN 8K TV
Digital Camera
SHOOT SHARPER SHOTS!
FREE! WITH THIS ISSUE

Choose from over 80 magazines and make great savings off the store price!

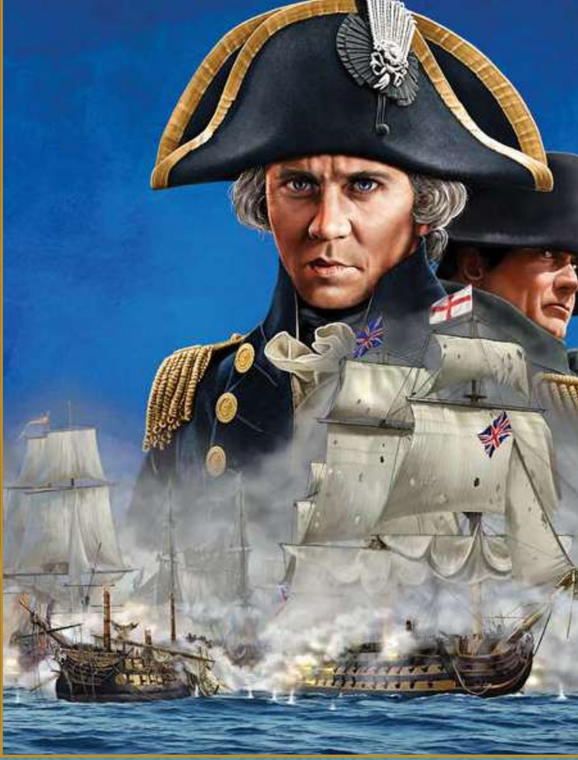
Binders, books and back issues also available

Simply visit www.magazinesdirect.com

✓ No hidden costs · Shipping included in all prices · We deliver to over 100 countries · Secure online payment

FUTURE

magazinesdirect.com
Official Magazine Subscription Store



GEORGIANS

Georgian royalty
The House of Hanover
THE HOUSE OF HANOVER
1714-1901

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

How a German family became the rulers of Great Britain

Georgian royalty
Georgian kings
GEORGIAN KINGS
George I
George II
Defining moments

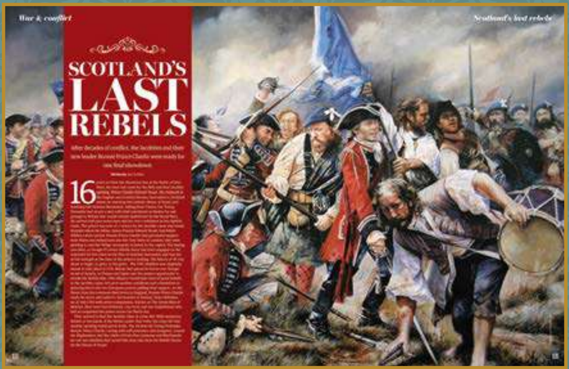
GEORGIAN ROYALTY

Meet the kings and queens who defined the Georgian Era

Society & culture
The march of knowledge
"Scientific academies provided scholars with the equipment, space and funding needed to carry out their research"
The Royal Society
THE MARCH OF KNOWLEDGE

SOCIETY & CULTURE

Explore a society in flux, from art and culture to the Industrial Revolution


War & conflict
Scotland's last rebels
SCOTLAND'S LAST REBELS

WAR & CONFLICT

Discover a nation at war for 120 years as empire and influence expanded

BOOKAZINE